# Census of India, 1911

VOLUME IX

# BURMA PART I.—REPORT

BY

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CENSUS AREAS, 1901 AND 1911.

## INTRODUCTION.

- I. Gradual Extension of Area covered by Census Operations.— The fifth Census of Burma was taken on the 10th March, 1911. Of the previous enumerations, those for 1872 and 1881 extended only to that portion of the Province then under British administration. Census operations in 1891 were extended to cover all the regularly administered portions of the recently annexed territory of Upper Burma. At the same time, an informal enumeration was conducted in several of the Shan States; but the figures obtained were not sufficiently comprehensive to be included in the tabulated statistics for the Census of 1891. In 1901 a further extension was made, the operations covering the whole of the Province except Manglun and Kokang in the Northern Shan States, the unadministered areas in Northern Arakan and the Pakôkku Hill Tracts, and an ill-defined block of unadministered territory to the North of the Upper Chindwin and Myitkyina Districts. In the Census now under report, a further reduction was effected in the areas excluded from Census Operations, Kokang, West Manglün, and the unadministered territory of the Pakôkku Hill Tracts being brought within their scope, although only an estimate of their populations was attempted. The only portions of the Province which still remain untouched are East Manglün, and the unadministered areas of the Northern Arakan, the Upper Chindwin and Myitkyina Districts.
- II. Treatment of Backward and Remote Areas.—Owing to various causes, the principal of which is the dearth of literate persons to act as Enumerators, and the lack of facilities for speedy communication, it is impossible to effect a simultaneous enumeration throughout the Province. A synchronous census was taken wherever possible, but as on previous occasions, special treatment had to be devised for backward or remote areas. This treatment was of two kinds according to the difficulties to be encountered. Where feasible, a non-synchronous census, regular in every particular except that it was not finally checked and corrected on the 10th March, was conducted during the months of January and February. Where this was not possible, an estimate was made, based on the number of houses, combined with an actual enumeration of several typical villages. Every effort was made to advance the nature of such operations a stage beyond those which were necessary in 1901. Some hitherto non-synchronous areas were brought within the scope of the synchronous enumeration; several areas previously estimated were treated non-synchronously; and, as already stated, areas omitted in 1901 were included for the first time, and their population estimated. A full account of the progress achieved will be given in the separate report specially devoted to the administrative details of the census operations.
- III. Arrangements for the Enumeration.—Experience has demonstrated that the best method of overcoming the difficulties of effecting a census in India is the adoption of a fourfold division of labour,—control, superintendence, supervision and enumeration. These functions are exercised through a series of officers termed, respectively, the District Census Officer, the Charge Superintendent, the Circle Supervisor, and the Enumerator. They are exercised over areas based on the administrative units of the District, the Township, the Revenue Surveyors Charge and the Village Tract, the last three of which were termed for census purposes, the Charge, the Circle and the Block. The Block comprised from 30 to 50 houses, the Circle from 10 to 15 Blocks, and the number of circles in a charge varied with the local conditions prevailing. The Deputy Commissioner usually retained the functions of District Census Officer in his own hands, though in a few cases they were delegated to specially selected officers. Charge Superintendents in most instances were Township Officers or Inspectors of Land Records; but in remote areas, officers from other Departments were called into service. Circle Supervisors were Revenue Surveyors or Circle Clerks wherever the

operations of the Land Records Department extended, and beyond their jurisdiction, officers from other departments undertook the duty. For enumerators, village headmen and private persons with the necessary educational qualifications were appointed. Instructions were framed and translated into simple idiomatic Burmese for the guidance of the several grades of officers, and these were supplemented by oral teaching, each grade of officers instructing those of the next grade within his jurisdiction. The total numbers of Census Officers appointed were 41 District Census Officers, 496 Charge Superintendents, 5,764 Circle Supervisors, and 65,083 Enumerators.

- IV. House Lists and House Numbering.—After the selection of Census Officers and the issue of instructions for their guidance, the first direct step towards the actual enumeration was the numbering of the houses. The definition of a house adopted was "the separate residence of a family," which in crowded areas was equivalent to a "tenement." A few difficulties were experienced in applying to widely varying conditions a definition which was designed to permit a certain latitude of classification, but these were easily solved whenever they arose. Simultaneously with the house numbering, lists of houses were prepared, totalled for each district, and the results sent to the Superintendent to form a basis for the distribution of the necessary enumeration forms.
- V. Census Chronology.—In order that local officers might check the progress of the preparations, two calendars were issued showing the dates on which each item of the operations should be commenced and concluded. The first, issued in April 1910, was devoted to the initial stages; the second, issued in September 1910, considerably amplified its predecessor and carried the programme to the final conclusion of the census duties to be performed by local officers. The calendars proved most effective keeping each stage of the preparations up to date, not only in the outlying districts but also in the central office.
- VI. Provision for Special Circumstances.—Mention has already been made of areas in which a full synchronous census could not be taken. These comprised the specially administered territories of the Northern and Southern Shan States, the Chin Hills and the Pakôkku Hill Tracts, together with a few remote areas in the regularly administered districts of the Province. Arrangements were made for a full census, complete in every detail except the final check, on the 10th March in all such areas except the Pakôkku Hill Tracts, the Brè Tract of Karenni and West Manglün and Kokang. In the administered portion of the Pakôkku Hill Tracts, a modified non-synchronous census was effected, while in the unadministered portions, and in the West Manglün and Kokang, an estimate only was attempted. Special instructions were also prepared for the enumeration of Towns, Ports, Boats, Steamers, Landing Places, Railways, Cantonments, Troops, Industrial Units, Plantations, Oil Fields, Travellers, Camps, Fairs, Festivals, Religious Assemblages, Jails, Hospitals, Police Stations, and of all localities where it was anticipated that the general instructions needed amplification or modification.
- VII. The Preliminary Record.—During November and December 1910, an experimental enumeration was attempted, each Enumerator making a specimen entry of the inhabitants of one house in his Block. The schedules were collected and an exhaustive examination made of their errors of omission and commission. These were tabulated, and instructions guarding against them were issued just in time for the preliminary record. In rural areas, this commenced on the 1st February 1911, but in towns and where rapidly changing conditions obtained, a later date was prescribed. The information to be recorded was the name, religion, sex, age, civil condition, caste, tribe or race, occupation, language, birth-place, literacy and certain infirmities of each person. About twenty days was allowed for the preparation of the preliminary record, which was due for completion on the 20th February in villages and rural areas and on the 4th March in towns.
- VIII. The Actual Census.—Except in the non-synchronous and estimated areas, the actual census was taken between 7 p.m. and midnight on the 10th March. Each enumerator visited in turn every house in his block and brought the preliminary record up to date by crossing out the record of persons no longer present, and entering particulars for all new comers.

- IX. The Provisional Results.—On the morning of the 11th March, each Enumerator went with his records to a place previously fixed by the Supervisor, and prepared an abstract of the houses, and persons, males and females, he had recorded. The enumerators' abstracts for all the blocks in a circle were combined into a Circle Summary. The Circle Summaries were in turn combined into a Charge Summary, and the Charge Summaries combined into one district total. When these stages were completed and checked, the final results for each District were telegraphed to the Census Commissioner for India. Despite careful and detailed instructions, this final preparation of provisional totals was the least satisfactorily performed of the whole series of operations. A complete analysis of the causes of the comparative want of success in this direction, most of them peculiar to the Province of Burma, some of them inherent and inevitable, some of them accidental and rectifiable, will be found in the volume of this report specially devoted to administrative details.
- X. Special Industrial, Departmental and Railway Census.—Simultaneously with the ordinary census, a census of large industries was effected through the agency of the owners and managers of all the industrial units of the province employing more than twenty persons. At the same time returns were prepared, under the supervision of the Agent of the Burma Railways showing the number of railway workers on the system, and similar returns were prepared by the heads of the Postal, Telegraph and Irrigation Departments. The results obtained were of considerable value both in indicating the extent to which large industries had taken root in the province, and also in checking the amount of error in the occupational returns of the ordinary census owing to the vague and insufficient nature of the terms used to describe the occupations recorded.
- XI. Preparation of Final Tables.—The preparation of the final Census Tables in Burma was handicapped by the impossibility of getting the preliminary stage of slip copying performed at district or township headquarters. This work for the whole province was concentrated in two offices at Rangoon and Mandalay, with the slight relief during the month of April of branch slip copying offices at Rangoon College and the Rangoon Buddhist Boys' and Girls' schools. To this handicap was added the most unfortunate illness and death of Babu A. C. Pal, Deputy Superintendent of the office. His illness commenced on the 20th March, ten days after the Census was taken, and continued till his death on the 12th April. Throughout this period, he endeavoured to carry out his heavy duties, and it was not till a few days before his death that he could be dissuaded from attendance at office. His loss at the most critical period of the whole operations adversely affected the rate of progress made, and it was months before the effects of the initial delay could be made good.
- XII. The Slip System.—As in 1901, the slip system of abstraction of enumeration details was adopted, though various modifications suggested by past experience were introduced. Details of religion were indicated by the colours of the slips, while sex and civil conditions were indicated by symbols. The combination of six colours and six symbols produced 36 varieties of slips which may be briefly indicated by the following scheme:—

_				*	Male.			Female:	
Religion.		Colour	•	Unmarried.	Married.	Widowed.	Unmarried.	Married.	Widowed.
			,	K		•	K		
Animist Hindu Mahomedan	***	Brown Yellow Red Green Blue White	•••	1 7 13 19 25 31	2 8. 14 20 26 32	3 9 15 21 27 33	10 16 22 28 34	5 11 17 23 29 35	6 12 18 24 30 36

The Slips, measuring 2 inches by  $4\frac{1}{2}$ , contained spaces for the entry of all the particulars not already indicated by the colour and symbol of the slip. There important details of religion, sex and civil condition were therefore

mere act of selection of the correct slip from a bureau of 36 compartments, and labour was further curtailed by the use of authorized abbreviations for all entries likely to be frequently repeated. A second series of slips was prepared for the entry of the infirmities recorded, this being the most effectual method of preventing omissions of a class of entries liable to be overlooked through their infrequency. The work of slip copying commenced on the 13th March, the staff being gradually recruited till it reached 569 at the end of April. A fall in numbers to 367 then occurred owing to the closing of the branch offices at the schools in Rangoon. The work was finally completed on the 5th of August 1911.

XIII. Slip Sorting.—After the slips were copied, they were divided into sorting units of convenient size, the slips for each unit being placed in a calico bag. A preliminary sorting by sex and religion was effected before the sorting bags were made up. The bags were then handed over to the Sorting Department and their contents analysed to obtain the respective numbers for each category of age, civil condition, caste, tribe or race, occupation, language, birth-place and literacy. After each sorting, the results were entered on a Sorter's Ticket designed to show the particulars ultimately required for statistical treatment. Sorting was commenced tentatively in May in order to train a sufficient number of men to act as sorting supervisors. It began seriously at the beginning of July, when the slip copying staff were gradually transferred to the Sorting Department as the approaching completion of slip copying rendered their services available. The number of sorters varied week by week, the maximum number of 337 being reached at the end of August. The work of sorting was finally completed on the 7th of October.

XIV. Compilation.—Compilation proved to be the most difficult and intricate task of all. It comprised the incorporation of the details for the various sorting units into District and Provincial Totals. It was effected by compilers selected from the best men in the slip copying and sorting departments. The standard, however, was deplorably low, and some of the compilation sheets had to be checked again and again before their horizontal and vertical totals would agree. The greatest difficulty was found in the correction of arithmetical errors. It was almost impossible to make the compilers understand that a mistake could not be rectified by the correction of the more immediate and obviously connected figures. The original figures would be incorporated in totals with remote and apparently unconnected ramifications, and when a compiler to avoid bringing an error to notice attempted to effect his own corrections the result was disastrous.

The work of compilation commenced on the 15th July and was nominally completed on the 2nd December, but the process of checking and rechecking the results continued till the end of the operations. Before a table was finally passed, it was necessary to compare its figures with the results obtained in the remaining tables whenever such a comparison proved possible. This revision proceeded concurrently with the writing of the report, and compilation may be said to have ended simultaneously with the completion of the report on the 20th March.

XV. Statistical Volume.—Considerable changes have been made in the presentation of statistics in the Imperial Tables of the report. The following tables are being published for the first time:—

Imperial Table XV-B.—Subsidiary occupations of agriculturalists.

Imperial Table XV-D.—Distribution of occupations by religion.

Imperial Table XV-E.—Parts I to IV.—Industrial statistics.

Previncial Table I.—Area and population of Townships, States and Special Tracts.

Provincial Table II.—Population of Townships and States by religion.

Table XV A-II has also been expanded by the addition of 470 columns to show—

(i) total workers and dependents;

(ii) male and female workers having agriculture as a subsidiary occupation.

The addition of these particulars has necessitated the expansion of the statement from 32 to 66 pages. Despite these additions the size of the statistical

volume has been reduced from 431 to 286 pages. This has been accomplished by a combination of the following methods—

(i) reduction in size of printing for the more lengthy tables;

(ii) climination of unnecessary information from Imperial Tables VIII and XIII;

(iii) Rearrangement of Imperial Tables VII, VIII, X, XI, XIII and XV A-II.

It is anticipated that the rearrangements will facilitate the task of reference. It is believed that the method of tabulating the speakers of the tribal language of the Province in Table X and the members of the several tribes in Table XIII, besides economising space has many points of advantage over their separate entry into the columns of the prescribed statement.

XVI. The Report.—It was impossible to commence the writing of the report on the Census Operations before the processes of sorting and compilation were completed. The first chapter was commenced on the 6th December and the last chapter completed on the 20th March. It thus took about three and-a-half months to write. But a very large portion of the time of the Superintendent was occupied during this period by the following tasks:—

(i) Examination, revision and arrangement of the Imperial Tables.

(ii) Supervision of the preparation of the Subsidiary Tables (numbering 79) appended to the chapters of this volume.

(iii) Preparation of the Administrative Volume, a detailed account of the conduct of the Census Operations from their initiation to their

conclusion.

(iv) Preparation of 41 B Volumes of the District Gazetteer, with which volumes the village census tables are to be incorporated.

It is feared that the time available in the intervals of these duties has not permitted sufficient attention to be given to the style and arrangement of the contents of the report, to the co-ordination of its various chapters and to the elimination of redundant matter. There has been little or no opportunity for the correction of proofs, or the rearrangements which the experience gained in the writing of the report has suggested. It remains as it was hurriedly drafted, with many of the defects inherent in a rapid review of masses of figures, uncorrected. The advantages of a comparatively early publication of the report and statistics will, it is hoped, excuse the deficiencies which such early publication has in some measure entailed.

XVII. Cost of Census.—Census expenditure has been recorded by two methods, "Treasury" and "Departmental". The two may be differentiated as follows:—

(i) Treasury expenditure is that which would not have been incurred but for Census Operations.

(ii) Departmental expenditure is the total of all charges actually incurred in connection with the Census Operations.

The main difference between the two is the inclusion of the full salaries of officers deputed to Census work in the departmental accounts, while in the treasury accounts only their deputation allowance is included.

			Cost o	f Census.		
	Year.		Departmental	Treasury	Cost per	head.
			Accounts.	Accounts.	Departmental.	Treasury.
1911	•••	•••	Rs. 174,927 186,457	Rs. 128,897 132,314	Pies. 2.8 3.4	Pies. 2'0 2'4

Although the population dealt with has increased from 10,490,624 to 12,115,217, the cost of the operations has decreased. The cost of the operations has been 2.8 pies or 2 pies per head, according as the "Departmental" or the "Treasury" standard of expenditure is taken as the basis of the calculation.

XVIII. Acknowledgments.—It would be impossible to specify by name the numerous officers of all ranks who have cordially co-operated in all stages of the

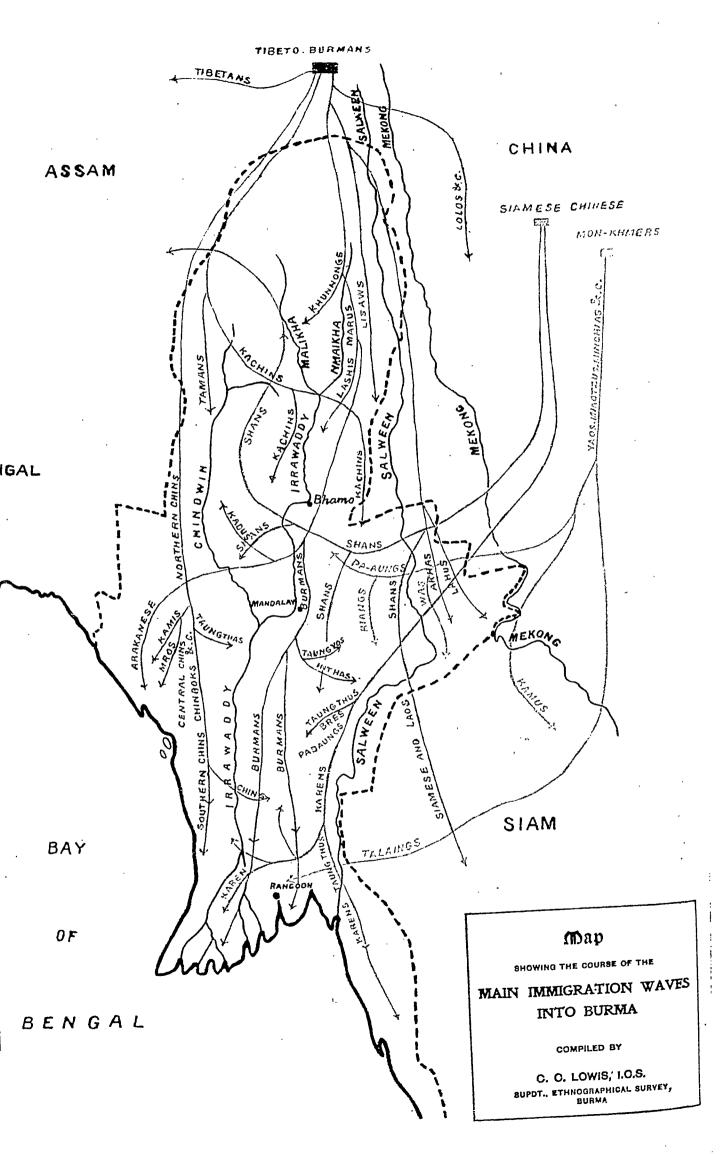
control, a complete success.

census operations. My thanks are particularly due to the Deputy Commissioners of the province for adding to their already heavy labours the task of controlling the operations in each district. The duties of a Census Superintendent are largely the collection and compilation of material supplied by the labour of others, and but for the care and attention given in carrying out the somewhat heavy demands of a census enumeration, the work could not have been effected. In this direction, the Traffic Manager of the Burma Railways and the Agent of the Irrawaddy Flotilla Company went considerably beyond what could have been reasonably expected, in their endeavours to make the enumeration under their respective

More particularly are my thanks due to Mr. J. A.' Stewart, C.S., for the translation of the "instructions to Enumerators" into clear and idiomatic Burmese, to Mr. J. S. Furnival, C.S., for many suggestions and contributions, and to the Revd. G. J. Geis of Myitkyina for several items of information concerning the races on the northern frontier of the province. The monograph on the Palaungs of the Kodaung Hill Tracts printed as an appendix to this Volume, is but one of the directions in which I have been assisted by Mr. A. A. Cameron, Assistant Superintendent of the Kodaung Hill Tracts. From the administrative Volume of the Census of 1901, and from the Volume of the Ethnographical Series on "The Tribes of Burma," both written by Mr. Lowis, I have derived the utmost assistance, and this was supplemented by his personal advice and guidance during the initial stages of the operations, before he left the province. I have also been exceedingly fortunate in receiving the personal encouragement and the mature advice in several difficult situations, generously extended to me by the Hon'ble Mr. H. L. Eales, C.S.I. Like every person who writes about Burma, I have found that the writings of Sir George Scott both official and unofficial, contain nearly all that can possibly be said on every subject connected with the province, and I have not hesitated to make the most generous quotations when the occasion seemed to demand them. Next to Sir George Scott's writings, the work of Major H. R. Davies on "Yunnan" has been of the greatest assistance to me in all matters connected with the tribes and races on the North-Eastern frontier. Without the volumes of the Linguistic Survey of India, the greater portion of Chapter X of this volume could not have been written. A most welcome saving in expenditure was effected by the offer of the use of a large amount of office furniture by the Honourable Judges of the Chief Court on the occasion of the transfer of the Court to their new buildings, and I desire to express my thanks for the assistance so received.

As for my immediate staff, I have the greatest pleasure in acknowledging my indebtedness to Maung Lat, Deputy Superintendent, Mr. G. Anthony, Chief Inspector, and Babu H. Ghosha, Chief Clerk and Accountant of the Rangoon Office. On the death of the previous Deputy Superintendent, Babu A. C. Pal, a great strain was thrown on these three officers, and it is largely due to their energy and industry that the resulting loss of time at the commencement of the work of compilation was subsequently recovered. Finally, I owe more than I can acknowledge to the promptitude with which Mr. Bishop, the Superintendent of the Government Press, has met my most unreasonable requests; and after Mr. Bishop's departure on leave, to Mr. Baillie, for the expeditious manner in which the census volumes were finally passed through the press.

G. MORGAN WEBB.



# REPORT

ON THE

# CENSUS OF BURMA, 1911

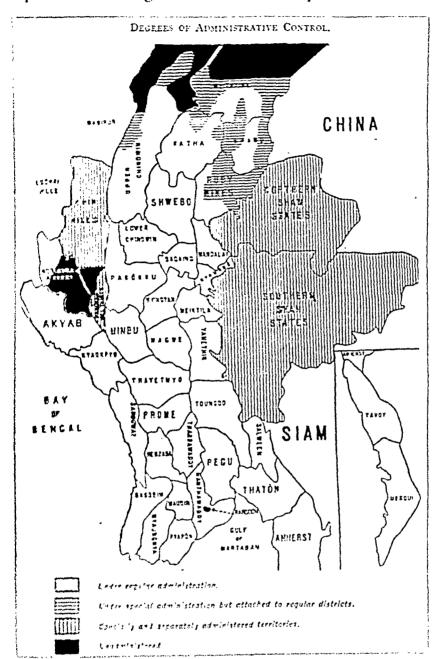
## CHAPTER I.

Distribution of the Population.

## ADMINISTRATIVE AND NATURAL DIVISIONS.

- I. Introductory.—It is not within the scope of this Chapter to attempt a general description of the Province of Burma. Such a task has been rendered unnecessary by the publication of the Provincial Series of the Imperial Gazetteer, which has supplied in an authoritative and accessible form all the information that such a description would contain. But there are a few special circumstances, peculiarly pertinent to the value and the method of arrangement of the statistics herein considered, which will need elucidation at greater length than in a work of general reference. If these few opening paragraphs appear to be disjointed and fragmentary, it is due to the fact that they are of a supplementary nature, not pretending to be a balanced and coherent account of provincial conditions, but merely recording a few of the more obvious factors necessary for a true appraisement of the value of the figures subsequently analysed.
- 2. Administered and Unadministered Territory.—Geographically the Province of Burma comprises the hinterland of that portion of the Bay of Bengal which extends from the Chittagong District in Bengal to the Isthmus of Kra in the Malay Peninsula. It extends northwards and eastwards from the sea to the mountainous, remote and thinly populated region where it meets the borders of Assam, Tibet, China and Siam. But the whole of this area of approximately 262,000 square miles has not been brought under effective administration. To the north of the Upper Chindwin and Myitkyina Districts is a large tract of unexplored country about the head waters of the Chindwin and Irrawaddy Rivers, in which no direct administrative control is at present exercised. Nearer the heart of the Province, lying between the Chin Hills, the Pakôkku Hill Tracts and the District of Northern Arakan is a smaller area to which no effective administration has been extended. The total area so unadministered is estimated to be about 31,000 square miles.
- 3. Specially Administered Territories.—There is a second series of territories not brought within the regular administration of the Province which are governed by special regulations through dependent Native Chiefs. The greater portion of such specially administered areas extending over 66,428 square miles are grouped into four administrative entities; the Northern and Southern Shan States, the Chin Hills and the Pakôkku Hill Tracts. The remainder, comprising thirteen areas totalling about 22,000 square miles, are attached for purposes of administration to the Upper Chindwin, Ruby Mines, Myitkyina, Bhamo and Katha Districts. It is necessary to keep the distinction between these two categories in mind, as they are treated differently in the arrangement of statistics which has been adopted. The four separate territories have been treated apart from the remainder of the Province, whereas the populations of specially administered areas attached to regular districts have been incorporated into the figures for those districts. This procedure is open to criticism. Theoretically, the whole population under special administration

should have been kept apart from that of the rest of the province. When this was realised the separation was attempted; but by this time the division of the sorting slips into units arranged on other lines, had proceeded too far to allow the change



to be made with success. Consequently, the main Imperial Statistical Tables for the districts mentioned clude the populaunder special, as well as those under regular, administration. The separation has however been effected in the Provincial Tables printed at the end of the Vol-Statistical ume, from which respective populations under regular and special administration can obtained.

4. Practical Justification of present Statistical Arrangement.—Though this arrangementof statistics was originally contemplated, and though it is theoretically unsound, there are many reasons which can be

controlled by a Deputy Commissioner, and these are again grouped into eight Divisions each under the supervision of a Commissioner. These administrative units have been taken as the basis for the compilation of the Imperial Census Tables, though as already explained, the populations of those specially administered territories which are attached to regular districts have been incorporated into the district totals. The areas of the two portions which for census purposes have been treated as Burma Proper and Specially Administered Territories are 164,411 square miles and 66,428 square miles respectively. These with the area roughly estimated to be 31,000 square miles of unadministered territory make up the total area of the Province.

- 6. Grouping of Statistics by Natural Divisions.—Though the grouping of statistics by Commissioners of Divisions is dictated by administrative reasons, such an arrangement is of but slight value in the treatment of the problems of the distribution of the population, its movements and migrations, its tribes and its languages, its customs and its occupations. It is true that these phenomena are influenced by administrative divisions, but in a secondary manner only. administrative boundaries themselves are secondary matters, being partly the resultant of natural features and physical characteristics. It is therefore highly important in estimating the true value of population statistics to ignore as far as possible the artificial areas called into existence for the purposes of government It is impossible to follow out this principle thoroughly, because all such statistics are primarily obtained through local officers working within their jurisdictions, and to this extent administrative areas must be recognized. respect to the main physical characteristics of the province, it is possible to select natural divisions which will exhibit the various phases of the life of the people with far greater effect than if the eight artificial divisions created purely for administrative purposes were adopted.
- 7. Importance of Natural Divisions in Burma.—The extreme importance of the influence of natural configuration on the distribution and character of the population is perhaps greater in Burma than in most other countries. Writing of a region including the northern portion of the Province, Major H. R. Davies, in his work on Yünnan, states:—

"It is safe to assert that in hardly any other part of the world is there such a large variety of languages and dialects as are to be heard in the country which lies between Assam and the Eastern border of Yünnan and in the Indo Chinese countries to the south of this region."

"The reason of this is not hard to find. It lies in the physical characteristics of the

"The reason of this is not hard to find. It lies in the physical characteristics of the country. It is the high mountain ranges and the deep, swift flowing rivers that have brought about the differences in customs and language, and the innumerable tribal distinctions which are so perplexing to the enquirer into Indo-Chinese ethnology."

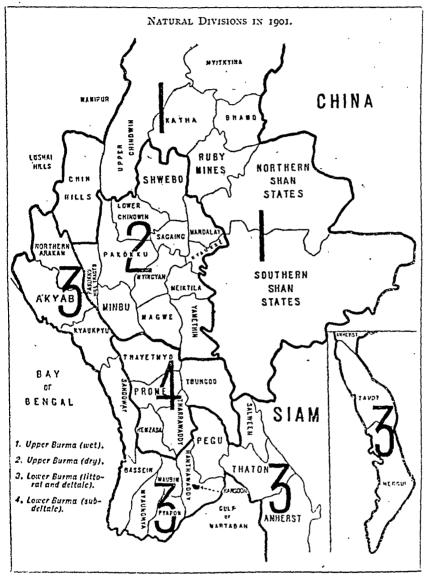
A further statement by the same writer emphasizes the far-reaching influence exercised by physical features on ethnical distribution. Discussing the racial conflict between the Chinese and the Shans in Yünnan, he states (page 379):—

"Probably the only reason why the Shans have been allowed to retain possession of any of the fertile valleys in Yünnan is that the lower-lying places are feverish, and the Chinese find them too unhealthy to live in. The dividing line between Chinese and Shans comes at about 4,000 feet. Above this height the valleys are healthy and the Chinese have settled there in sufficient numbers to absorb or drive out the Shans."

This suggestion may explain much more than the continued existence of the Shans in the low Yünnanese valleys. It may probably be one of the causes of the immunity of the Shan States and of Burma from a Chinese invasion in overwhelming numbers, and may therefore be an important factor in the very existence of Burma as a separate national entity. Instances taken from within the Province, illustrating the close association between racial distribution and the general physical characteristics of the country, might be multiplied indefinitely. At present it is sufficient to notice how this association has forced itself into official nomenclature in such terms as the Chin Hills and the Kachin Hill Tracts.

8. Absence of previous Analysis of Population by Natural Divisions.—Despite its outstanding importance, circumstances have hitherto intervened to prevent an analysis of the population of Burma with special reference to the natural features of the country. In 1891, the annexation of Upper Burma was so recent that it overshadowed all other considerations. In the Census Report for that year, the main natural divisions of the Province were described, their want of correspondence with its administrative divisions pointed out, and the latter were

then adopted as convenient units for dealing with the census returns. In 1901, a suggestion was made by the Census Commissioner for India pointing out that the close relation existing between rainfall and population was such as to justify the selection of meteorological conditions as the primary basis of a classification of this kind. The result was unfortunate so far as Burma was concerned. The natural divisions described in 1891 were modified to fit in with meteorological conditions, and an analysis of the distribution of the population with reference to modified divisions was attempted. Fortunately, Mr. Lowis himself recorded in strenuous terms his opinion of the extreme unsuitability of the divisions so obtained as the following quotations from paragraphs 20 and 21 of his report will indicate:—



"In Burma the required conditions vary so largely that a rough and ready classification of areas according to rainfall is exceedingly difficult."

"When we turn to Lower Burma we find more variety within the divisions; here again the rain gauge is no guide."

"A glance at Division I would at first sight incline one to the belief that in Burma a high rainfall meant a scanty population."

"We know however that rainfall has had nothing to do with the scantiness of the population of the tracts in question."

"In Division II as in Division I, one is confronted with figures that appear at first sight anomalous,"

"In Burma the one universal rule is for the uplands to be thinly peopled and the plains, whether wet or dry, ish and low land?"

thickly; and the only satisfactory division of the country would be into high and low land."

So anomalous and contradictory were the results obtained, that in the Imperial Census Volume, in the course of an attempt "to show that among the various factors which contribute to the complex problem of the distribution of the rural population in India, the amount of rainfall and the regularity of the supply are on the whole the most important",— the figures for Burma drew forth the comment;—"These variations defy any cut-and-dried formula." After this initial demonstration of the unsuitability of the natural divisions adopted, they were ignored; and for the remainder of the Report for 1901 the analysis of the various phases of the population proceeded on general lines rather than according to natural divisions. The attempt now being made to utilise the natural divisions of the province to exhibit the different phases of its national life throughout its various manifestations is therefore an innovation. Like all pioneer attempts it will probably achieve only partial success; it will proceed haltingly, hesitatingly and tentatively; it may cross and recross its previous tracks; it may at different times lose its sense of direction and arrive at conflicting conclusions. Such drawbacks are inevitable on the initiation of a new method of presentation. But such minor defects can be excused if the

new method should reduce divergent circumstances to some system of coherence, or if it explains variations which have hitherto defied any prescribed formula.

9. Method of Selecting Natural Divisions.—In proceeding to recast a scheme of natural divisions, it is necessary to follow closely the suggestion of Mr. Lowis that the only satisfactory division is that into high and low land. He however considered that it was impossible to embody this distinction in any formal scheme of district classification. Nevertheless, it is necessary to make the attempt. It may be impossible to effect a division which would be free from all doubtful points, or to secure district boundaries coinciding absolutely with the boundaries of the desired natural divisions. But a sufficiently satisfactory classification has already been effected in the Provincial Gazetteer for Burma as follows:—

"Burma is split up into natural divisions by its rivers and mountain ranges. The valleys of the Irrawaddy, Chindwin and Sittang form a narrow strip of plain land running down the centre of the main mass and widening out into the delta country on either side of Rangoon. The sea forms the southern limit of this strip. On all other sides the central level is enclosed by hill ridges."

This plainly suggests a threefold division which may be thus classified:—

Central Basin—the valleys of the Irrawaddy, Chindwin and Sittang, forming a narrow strip of plain land running down the centre of the main mass;

Deltaic Plain—the area widening out into the delta country;

Enveloping Hill Ranges—the hill ridges enclosing the central level on all other sides.

This threefold division corresponds closely with that adopted by Mr. Eales in 1891, the only difference being due to the separation of the enveloping Hill

Ranges into the Littoral and Sub-montane regions. Such a separation is necessary for many reasons. An enveloping area is peculiarly difficult to deal with owing to its unwieldy shape. Moreover, in the present instance the area covered is so extensive that many varying physical conditions are included. It is also broken into

Natural	Div	isions.
As suggested by Pro- vincial Gazetteer.		As described in 1891.
Central Basin Deltaic Plains Enveloping \( \) Hill Ranges \( \)		(3) Gentral. (2) Deltaic. (1) Littoral. (4) Sub-montane.

discontinuous portions by the interposition of specially administered territories whose separate treatment is advisable. After a consideration of the relative merits of other methods of sub-division, a final scheme still corresponding closely to that of 1891

has been adopted. It has not been thought necessary to use the same terminology as that of 1891, as the schemes, although based on the same general principles, are not identical in their constituent districts. Neither has the order of divisions in 1891 been followed, an order suggesting the method of arriving at the divisions finally adopted being preferred.

Natural Divisions.				
1911.	1891.			
1. Central Basin 2. Deltaic Plains 3. Northern Hill Districts 4. Coast Ranges 5. Specially Administered Territories.	(3) Central. (2) Deltaic. (4) Sub-montane. (1) Littoral. Omitted.			

10. Natural Divisions finally adopted.—Throughout this report, an endeavour will be made to adhere as closely as circumstances permit to these divisions in the consideration of the various phases presented by the statistics compiled. The administrative districts of the province have been allotted to the several divisions as follows:—

Central Basin.	Deltaic Plains.	Northern Hill Districts.	Coast Ranges.	Specially Administered Territories.
` ĭ	2	3	4	5
Prome Thayetmyo Pakôkku Minbu Magwe Mandalay Shwebo Sagaing Lower Chindwin Kyauksè Meiktila Yamèthin Myingyan	Rangoon Hanthawaddy Tharrawaddy Pegu Bassein Henzada Myaungmya Ma-ubin Pyapôn Thatôn Toungoo	Bhamo Myitkyina Katha Ruby Mines Upper Chindwin	Akyab Northern Arakan Kyaukpyu Sandoway Salween Amherst Tavoy Mergui	Northern Shan States Southern Shan States Pakôkku Hill Tracts Chin Hills

It is possible to anticipate numerous criticisms as to their composition. Some of the borderland districts might have been placed with almost equal reason into any



one of three of the divisions; or better still, they might have been divided and their components placed into most suitable divisions. Considerable attention has been given to the question whether Districts should be divided to form several natural divisions. Such a course would have improved the scheme in the directions of continuity and uniformity. The utilisation of Township boundaries would have produced a much closer approximation to reality. Qn the other hand, it would have entailed extremely heavy labour in compiling the statements necessary to esti-

mate the value of the facts adduced; and indeed, some of the general statistics such as those contained in the first subsidiary table annexed to this chapter, could not possibly have been compiled had Township boundaries been utilised. The five natural divisions must therefore be regarded as being convenient rather than strictly logical; as combining a few broad general characteristics; and as merging into each other neither with clear, well defined and regular boundaries, nor with a gradual barely perceptible change, but with broad vague confused and irregular outlines. The precision, suggested both by their appearance on the map, and by the symmetry of the subsidiary tables in which their various aspects are viewed, must be discounted by the knowledge that in their essence they are not capable of precise

and symmetrical presentation.

Before considering the divisions separately, a rather more detailed description of their general physical characteristics than that given in the preceding paragraph to explain the methods of formation is necessary. The northern boundary of Burma lies in the region where the Himalayas diverge from their general direction of approximately East and West, and turn towards the sea in a series of ranges whose general direction is North and South. Commencing in the lofty and massive hills of the main Himalayan ranges they gradually lose their hold and precipitous character as they approach the sea, their height diminishes, and their valleys broaden out into expansive tracts of level country. The central valley, that containing the Chindwin, the Sittang and the Irrawaddy Rivers, is so extensive that it divides the mountainous regions into distinct systems diverging to the sea coast to the West and East of the province respectively. The Western system after running parallel with the Arakan coast terminates at Cape Negrais. The Eastern system prolongs itself along the Tenasserim Coast and extends beyond the limits of Burmese territory into Siam. The upper portion of the main central valley, an elongated, land-locked stretch of undulating country, comprises the first division,

termed the Central Basin. Nearer the sea the valley broadens out, the enveloping hills diverge widely and the rivers branch out into numerous intersecting creeks flowing through alluvial plains. This region has been adopted as the second natural division under the term Deltaic Plains. The third division, the Northern Hill Districts, comprises the area of divergence of the Burmese mountain ranges from the main Himalayas prior to their division into two distinct systems by the great central valley. The first portion of the continuation of the two separate systems on both sides of the Central Basin forms the fifth division, which from the fact that the territories within its limits have been placed under special administration, has been given the designation "Specially Administered Territories". The scheme of natural divisions is completed by the further continuation of the two systems, now widely separated from each other, along the coasts of Arakan and Tenasserim respectively.

It is remarkable that these natural divisions, formed without regard to meteorological considerations exhibit a striking degree of meteorological harmony. Indeed,

but for the three marginal districts of Thatôn, Northern Arakan and Salween, whose positions in the accepted scheme were matters of hesitation, rainfall might have been the primary factor in their formation. This harmony justifies the method of formation adopted, and demonstrates that, if due weight is given to the influence of

Natural Divisions.	Rainfa	Meteorological		
Natural Divisions.	Range,	Mean.	characteristics.	
Central Basin Deltaic Plains Northern Hill Districts. Coast Ranges Specially Administered Territories.	71 to 215 ,, 58 to So ,,	38 ins. 117 ,, 67 ,, 174 ,, 82 ,,	Dry. Wet. Moderately wet. Extremely wet. Moderately wet.	

elevation and contour, the principle of the intimate connection of the distribution of the population with the amount of the rainfall and the regularity of the supply, enunciated in paragraph 39 of the Census Report for India for 1901, is applicable to Burma without anomalies or contradictions.

- II. Central Basin.—The term "Burma Proper" has already been appropriated to denote the area within the eight administrative divisions of the Province. But, both historically and ethnically, it could be claimed with greater propriety by the region which is prosaically termed the Central Basin. It coincides roughly with the permanent sphere of influence of the rapidly and continuously fluctuating Burmese kingdom as it was gradually fighting its way towards supremacy. It contains the capitals of Prome, Pagan, Ava, Sagaing, Shwebo, Amarapura and Mandalay, each of which has been the centre of decisive incidents in the turgid course of Burmese history. It is the cradle of the Burmese race. It is the venue of the transformation of numerous, petty, diverse and hostile nomadic tribes from the Himalayan region, into a unified and powerful nation, sufficiently cohesive to maintain a virile and aggressive existence between its formidable Indian and Chinese neighbours. Neither the vicissitudes of war, nor the domination of alien conquerors, nor the immigration of numerous and diverse racial elements have been able to arrest this silent, steady and apparently inevitable development towards a unified and highly individualised nationality. The national or racial instinct has been sufficiently intense to avert the consequences of unsuccessful war during an era when such consequences usually approached extermination, and to absorb the intruding elements whether they came as immigrants or as conquerors. This central area, the heart of the Province, exhibits the various characteristics of Burmese life to a degree unattainable in any of the remaining divisions, modified as they are, each and all, by the existence of large numbers of half-absorbed and unabsorbed foreign immigrants.
- 12. Deltaic Plains.—Just as the Central Basin coincides roughly with the historic Burmese kingdom, so the Deltaic Plains are approximately coterminous with the ancient kingdom of the Talaings. But racial developments within the two divisions have proceeded on widely differing lines. The Talaings were welded into an organized nation long before the Burmese race was evolved from its primitive elements. But their environment proved to be less suited to the growth and extension of a permanent nationality than the more sheltered and protected central portions of the Province. They were exposed to invasions from the North, from the East and from the Sea. They were subject to immigration of races

more numerous, more diverse and less assimilative than those which coalesced to form the Burmese kingdom. The intruding peoples remained apart, centres of disruption, the dominant race not possessing sufficient absorptive power to incorporate them and gather fresh strength from the infusion. The advent of European races hastened a disintegration that had already commenced. With the annexation of Pegu by the British, the final stage of the existence of the Talaings as a separate race was reached. The introduction of a peaceful and settled government transformed the nature of the racial conflict, without mitigating its intensity. The fertile and almost uninhabited deltaic plains became the focus of numerous converging streams of immigration. They attracted the Burmese from their comparatively densely populated kingdom, the Karens from their isolation in the wilder and more remote portions of the newly annexed territory, and Indians of all races and castes from numerous congested areas in India. Events are proving that peace is an even more relentless foe than war to the continued existence of the Talaings as a separate race. They are no longer an independent factor in the new ethnical struggle which is to determine whether the indigenous races of the Province can survive the pressure of the population of India and China under modern conditions of intercourse. They have already capitulated, and are being slowly absorbed by the Burmese, who thus reinforced take precedence in the lower portion, as well as in the central portion of the Province. But whereas in the central basin the precedence is absolute, in the deltaic region it is qualified by the existence of Karens and Indians in large and The statistics for the two divisions hitherto considered will increasing numbers. therefore exhibit different characteristics, those for the latter illustrating the respective positions of several races in their unconscious struggle for supremacy, while those for the former portray the phases of the life of a population which has become racially homogeneous.

13. Northern Hill Districts.—The population of the third natural division remains in a much earlier stage of ethnical development. The diversified surface of the Northern Hill Districts of the province offers almost insuperable obstacles to any tendencies towards aggregation. The numerous mountain ranges and swiftly flowing torrents render communications over large areas a matter of extreme difficulty. The physical characteristics of the country exercise a disintegrating tendency, producing infinite varieties of types, and classes, and tribes, and dialects, even among races of a cognate origin. This tendency is strengthened by the preference of certain races for a life in the valleys while others prefer to remain on the crests and slopes of the hill ranges. Thus, to physical obstacles to easy and frequent intercourse is added the interposition of alien and inharmonious racial elements. Under such circumstances, language and manners, customs and traditions, become highly localised, and are modified with such rapidity that in a comparatively short space of time the inhabitants of localities, not far distant from each other, and having a common origin, gradually adopt differing tribal designations. This stage of unstable racial equilibrium is by no means uniform throughout the area under consideration. It is less pronounced in the southern districts where the surface of the country is less mountainous, and where the Burmese influence has been more effectively exercised. But it gradually intensifies towards the north culminating in the unadministered territories which lie outside the scope of the census operations.

the unadministered territories which lie outside the scope of the census operations. In many respects the figures for the Northern Hill Districts of the province transcend in interest those of any of the other natural divisions. They exhibit the earlier processes of the unification of the Burmese race in active operation. They contain the last vestiges of the Marus, the Lashis, the Szis, and the Hpons, an almost continuous chain of Tibeto-Burman tribes, left behind in the course of their successive immigrations from their original homes in Central Asia. Within their limits is the ancient capital of Tagaung where the rudiments of stability and settled organization introduced by Hindu colonists first began to operate on the primitive scattered and nomadic tribes in the vicinity, ultimately resulting in the creation of a Burmese nationality. The methods by which this transformation from instability and dispersion into stability and cohesion were effected are as visible to-day as when they first began to work. Improvements in communications and security of life and property, are lessening the disruptive tendencies. The members of the more primitive and backward tribes are being absorbed by those of greater influence. The Burmese, the Kachins and the Shans, by the powerful medium of language, are gradually assimilating the tribes with whom they came into contact. To what extent they will succeed, and to what extent they will mutually influence

each other, are problems which the data at present available cannot solve. It must be left to future enquirers, by a comparison with the facts at present ascertained to estimate the strength and resultant of the forces making respectively for dispersion and integration.

- 14. Coast Ranges.—With the fourth natural division the element of discontinuity is introduced. Not only are the Arakan and Tenasserim coasts separated by the interposition of the delta of the Irrawaddy, but the district of Salween is separated from the Tenasserim littoral districts by a portion of the Thatôn District. But for practical difficulties, it would have been better to have eliminated the second and minor discontinuity by transferring the Hlaingbwè Township of the Thatôn District from the second to the fourth natural division. This would have been a much more satisfactory arrangement in every way. But practical difficulties intervened, and the actual scheme adopted is one of many examples of the triumph of expediency over theoretical perfection. A further difficulty is the inclusion of the Districts of Northern Arakan and Salween in what is primarily a littoral division. Their physical characteristics are however sufficiently uniform with those of the remainder of the division to justify their inclusion as being the least anomalous of all the possible alternatives. This division with its discontinuities and its anomalies must be considered in the light of the opinion of Mr. Lowis that a satisfactory division of the Province by physical characteristics is impossible. It does not claim to be more than an empirical solution of a difficult problem. The intimate connection of Arakan with Burma commenced with the simultaneous and associated evolution of the two main branches of the Burmese race from the same racial ingredients. The destruction of Tagaung by the Shans at some time about the commencement of the Christian era, and of Prome by the Talaings somewhat later, resulted in an acceleration of the dispersal of the tribes and colonists then dwelling in the valley of the Irrawaddy. Remnants of the fugitive Indian colonists from Tagaung, and of the indigenous Saks and Kamrams from the vicinity of Prome were forced over the Yomas into Arakan and introduced the decisive elements in the development of the Arakanese portion of the Burmese race. Proximity to the sea, to Bengal and to Chittagong, has introduced many racial modifications, but the Burmese language and characteristics have been sufficiently firmly implanted to withstand all possibilities of elimination or suppression. The connection of Tenasserim with Burma is much more tion or suppression. Until a comparatively recent period, Burmese influence reached Tenasserim either by maritime intercourse through Arakan or indirectly through the Talaings. It was not till the latter part of the eighteenth century that the conquests of Alompra established the Burmese in a region hitherto mainly populated by the Talaings, the Siamese and the Karens. Despite a differing racial development, due to the differing circumstances of their respective hinterlands, the two portions of the littoral hill ranges of the province have several affinities of race and language which render their grouping and treatment in one natural division less anomalous than would at first sight appear.
- 15. Specially Administered Territories.—The fifth and last of the natural divisions would from its designation appear to be formed on administrative rather than on physical considerations. It is of course convenient that territories under special administration should be isolated in special division of their own, but the formation of the division has not been dictated entirely by considerations of expediency. It comprises the regions where the main Himalayan mass is definitely divided into eastern and western systems by the interposition of the Irrawaddy and the Chindwin Valleys. Its two portions form respectively the eastern and western connections between the coastal ranges and the central continental mountain system. Their administrative peculiarities are largely the resultant of their physical characteristics. They form the only division of the province where Burmese racial influence is of a subordinate character. Their ethnical development has been mainly the product of extra provincial forces. In the western portion the population is composed of the various tribes of the Chin race. In the eastern portion the Shans are predominant, but its natural features are sufficiently like those of the Northern Hill Districts to have induced a similar diversity of minor races, tribes and languages. The main interest of the statistics for this natural division lies in the illumination that can be given as to the effect of settled and distinctive administration on the several races within its limits.

commenced with praiseworthy resolutions of extreme brevity, have expanded themselves beyond their original intention. Intended to supply a framework on which the subsequent portions of the report might be formed, they have anticipated much that should only have been suggested. They have stated conclusions with greater precision than a closer consideration of the material available may substantiate. They have possibly over-estimated the importance of the physical features of the country in shaping its racial development. The claims of accuracy and brevity are difficult to reconcile in an anticipatory statement of the treatment of many phases of national life. It is hoped that the necessary modifications of any propositions stated in too general terms will be introduced in the course of subsequent analysis; while the undue length of the introduction may be forgiven if it has suggested a unified and coherent method of dealing with statistics applying to numerous and divergent conditions, and almost irresistably tending towards a discursive consideration.

# AREA, POPULATION AND DENSITY.

17. Scope of Chapter.—The natural starting point for a review of the population of a country is a consideration of its distribution at some given time, ignoring its variations and its migrations, and without regard to the age, sex, race, religion or language of its members. Before such aspects as the rate of increase of the inhabitants, or their movements from place to place can be considered, and before their elements of diversity can be estimated, some knowledge of their actual numbers, and their aggregation into rural and urban communities is essential. This chapter will be confined to a presentation of the broad general facts concerning the distribution of the inhabitants of Burma over the various parts of the province on the 10th March 1911, considering in somewhat greater detail the forces operating to determine the numbers who were recorded as dwelling in towns and villages respectively. The material for such a purpose is to be found in Imperial Table I which gives the area and population for each district of the province and in Provincial Table I, which gives the same information for each Township, State or similar minor administrative areas. Seven subsidiary statements printed as an appendix to this chapter have also been compiled, mainly with the intention of illustrating the effect of the physical characteristics of the country on the distribution of its inhabitants. Where necessary to elucidate the text, where a fact is being presented which would otherwise entail reference to several statistical tables, minor statements will be given in the margin, but every effort has been made to avoid in such statements a mere repetition of figures easily accessible.

18. Density of Population.—Within the census area of 230,839 square miles, 12,115,217 inhabitants have been recorded, the average density being 53

Natural Division.	Area (Square Miles).	Population,	Density.
Central Basin Deltaic Plains Northern Hill Districts Coast Ranges Specially Administered Territories.	44,445 34,815 45,522 39,029 66,428	4,113,894 4,332,402 662,821 1,501,139 1,504,961	93 124 15 38 23
Burma Proper	164,411	10,610,256	65
Province { Census area Total area	230,839 262,000	12,115,217	53

persons per square mile. If the sparsely populated, specially adminterritories be excluded, 10,610,256 persons were recorded within an area of 164,410 square miles, giving an average density over this restricted area of 65 persons per square mile. The calculation of mean densities of population over such farreaching areas of widely varying conditions is a misleading operation unless its applications are strictly limited. Its principal utility is to afford a standard of comparison of the distribution of population with that of other periods, other countries, and of

its own constituent parts. In themselves, the figures of 53 and 65, the average densities of the whole province and of Burma Proper respectively, are unmeaning, being a mere arithmetical expression of a hypothetical uniformity. But they may serve a useful, if subordinate, function in effecting comparisons which would otherwise be impossible. It is natural that the object of the first comparison should be to ascertain the position which Burma holds within the Indian Empire, with respect

southern portions of the valley region respectively. But even yet, the conditions necessary for the growth of an expanding population had not been established. For many centuries, the Burmese, the Talaings, and the Shans, who were gradually being driven out of China, waged sanguinary and exterminative wars with one another. Their effect on the growth of population can be gauged by an illustration from beyond the borders of the province. In the course of a discussion on the density of population in Assam, in the Census Report for India for 1901, one of the causes of the scanty population in the Brahmaputra valley cited is "the Burmese invasion of less than a hundred years ago which left the country at the time of our occupation almost denuded of inhabitants." If such an effect could be produced by an isolated incident of war as carried on by the Burmese, the cumulative effect of almost continuous warfare of a similar nature protracted through centuries of time can be imagined. The causes of the scanty population of Burma are now, fully explained. The greater portion of the country is of a wild and mountainous character unable to support a large population with the necessaries of life, while the growth of population in the more fertile regions has been impeded by the comparatively late evolution of national life, and the still later introduction of the security of peaceful and settled government.

20. Principal Influences determining Density.—The marginal statement in paragraph 18 above indicates that the arithmetical expression that the mean density of the population of Burma is 53 covers diversities ranging from a density

of 15 persons per square mile in the Northern Hill Districts to one of 124 persons per square mile in the Deltaic plains. Subsidiary Table I appended to this chapter shows how these figures in their turn are but hypothetical assumptions covering greater diversities in their constituent districts, and Provincial Table I of the Statistical Volume shows still further diversities of the densities of minor areas The process might be repeated such as townships or states are considered. indefinitely, each step forward resulting in greater accuracy of presentation, combined with greater difficulty and complexity of analysis. Considering only for the present the broad general differences presented by the mean densities for the five natural divisions of the province, an examination of the various columns of Subsidiary Table I indicates that the principal measurable factors influencing the distribution of the population, in the order of importance, are the percentage of total area culturable, the rainfall, and the extent of irrigation. It is unfortunate that a few questionable figures have crept into column 3 of the table, the percentage of culturable area given for Northern Arakan, though obtained from authoritative sources, being specially open to grave suspicion. Fortunately the amount of disturbance introduced is not sufficient to destroy the utility of the figures for the purposes of illustration. The primary influence of the area culturable

		Percentage.		
Natural Division.	Den- sity.	Of total area culturable.	Of irrigated to culturable area.	Mean Rainfall.
Central Basin Deltaic Plains Northern Hill Districts Coast Ranges Specially Administered Territorics.	93 124 15 38 23	46 49 22 39	 - 24 	38 117 67 174 82

on the density of the population is seen by a comparison of columns 2 and 3 of the table. There are numerous departures from an extremely close correspondence between the columns, which will be considered in detail when the density of each separate division is being considered. But the general resultant by natural divisions, the order of

density coinciding with the order of percentage of area culturable, is conclusive proof that the principal determinant of density of population in Burma is the area available for cultivation.

No such coincidence exists between the mean density and the rainfall of the five natural divisions. But this lack of correspondence does not mean that the two phenomena are entirely independent. If the operation of other factors be allowed for, the influence of rainfall is seen to have an important though secondary effect on the density of the population. No advantage could possibly be gained by comparing the relative influence of rainfall on population in the delta or in the central basin and in one of the three hilly divisions of the province. Other factors of greater potency are at work to counteract any possible effect due to rainfall only. But the comparison of the influence of rainfall in the Central Basin and in the Deltaic Plains, between them supporting 70 per cent. of the inhabitants of the province, is of the highest value. There, other disturbing conditions, are not sufficiently varied to conceal the correspondence between rainfall and density. With culturable areas in approximately equal proportions (46 and 49 per cent. respectively) the Central Basin, notwithstanding the influence exercised by extensive irrigation supports only 93 persons per square mile, against 124 supported by the more generously watered Deltaic Plains.

The discrepancy between these two figures is much less than a mere consideration of their respective rainfalls would justify. That with a mean rainfall of only 38 inches the Central Basin supports a population of 93 per square mile, while the Deltaic Plains with a rainfall of 117 inches only supports 124 per square mile, must be attributed largely to the influence of irrigation. Eighteen per cent. of the cultivated area of the former is irrigated, while the irrigated area of the latter is too insignificant to be perceptable as a percentage. Other factors besides irrigation are no doubt at work, the principal being the recent opening out of large partions of the delta to cultivation. But the comparatively slight difference of deasity of population when the difference in rainfall is so disproportionately great must be attributed in the main to the powerful effect of irrigation to supplement the adverse influence of a low rainfall.

21. Central Basin.—The appearance of the map designed to show the density of population by district areas would suggest that this natural division composed a regions of maximum density in the districts of Mandalay and Sagaing,

a compact block of moderate density comprising the districts of Kyaukse, Myingyan and Meiktila, a crescent of minimum density extending from Shwebo in the north to Thayetmyo and Yamethin in the south, and an isolated district of medium

density in the extreme south. much more accurate, if less symmetrical distribution of population is shown on the map giving densities by townor ship state areas. Here the prominent position of Mandalay District is shown to be due to the aggregation σſ population in Mandalay City and the Urban Township Amarapura.

Considering the rural density only with the help of the second map region the of maximum density is seen to stretch in a south-easterly direction from the east of the Lower Chindwin District to the western portion of Meiktila District. This coincides very closely with

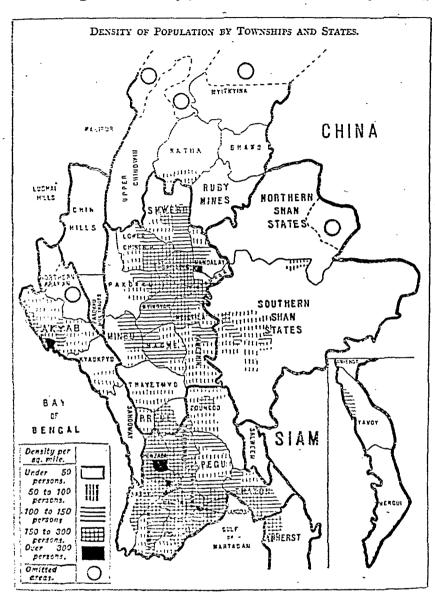
DESSITY OF POLYLATION BY DISTRICTS. CHINA RUEY RINES SHAR STATES. SOUTHERN SHAN STATES 8 4 4 :" CENGLL SIAM

the broadest stretch of culturable land within the division, the broad plain formed by the meeting of the valleys of the Irrawaddy and the Chindwin. The District of Sagaing uniquely situated on the peninsula between these two rivers occupies the central position in this tract. With the lowest rainfall of all the districts in the Central Basin, and the smallest proportion of irrigated area, it maintains its position as its most densely populated district by means of an extremely high percentage of culturable area. The adjacent portions of the Lower Chindwin, Myingyan and Pakökku Districts sustain their large density in a similar manner, their high percentage of culturable area affording a compensation for a scanty rainfall and an absence of irrigation. In the more eastern portions of this tract of maximum density, in the Kyauksè and Meiktila Districts, irrigation plays a much more important part, in the former district being responsible for 76 per cent. of the area cultivated. In the extreme south of the Division a wedge of deltaic land pierces the heart of the Prome District. Indeed both in position in rainfall and in contour of surface it occupies a marginal position partaking partly of the nature of the districts of the Central Basin and partly approximating to those of the Deltaic Plains.

Still following the density by townships as being the more accurate guide, the region of medium density roughly coincides with the valleys of the Irrawaddy and the Chindwin, above and below the region of their confluence in the districts of Shwebo, Mandalay, Lower Chindwin, Pakôkku, Myingyan, Minbu, Magwe, Thayetmyo and Prome, and the valley of the Sittang in Yamethin District. Here the percentage of culturable area falls, but a moderately high density is sustained generally with the assistance of more or less extensive irrigation. The areas of minimum density are the hilly townships principally on the western and northern

boundaries of the division, but also occupying the greater portion of the Thayetmyo District and the eastern portions of the districts of Mandalay, Kyauksè and Prome. They are occupied largely by hill tribes who practise a wasteful system of cultivation by annually burning the jungle on the hill sides and growing their crops on the areas so cleared.

22. Deltaic Plains.—The map of density by districts shows three well defined degrees of density; a belt of maximum density running through the centre



from north to south and comprising the four districts Tharrawaddy, Henzada, Maubin and Hanthawaddy; a block of moderate denoccupying sity the south-western portion the Division and comprising the districts three of Bassein, Myaungmya and Pyapôn; and an eastern belt ot lesser density formed by the districts of Toungoo, Pegu and Thatôn. As in the Central Basin, the map density by townships dispels symmetrical arrangement the District map. The centres of maximum density are the Henzada and Ma-ubin Districts with populations of 187 and 185 to the square

mile. They contain the Henzada and Danubyu Townships with densities of 379 and 302 respectively, the only two rural townships in the province with over 300 persons per square mile. Generally speaking, density is proportionate to culturable area, but this is a proposition which requires considerable amplification. The crude percentages shown in column 3 of Subsidiary Table I do not distinguish between areas well protected from inundation and those on which inundation is an annual liability. Henzada with a comparatively low percentage of culturable area has a high degree of protection. Column 4 gives a much closer approximation to reality in this respect than Column 3, and the comparison between density and area actually cultivated is much more trustworthy. Moreover, population has been settled for a much longer period in the Districts of Henzada, Tharrawaddy, Ma-ubia and the northern portion of the Bassein District, than in the littoral portions of the deita, and it is naturally much less dense in the more recently settled tracts. Allowing for these modifying factors, which cannot easily be reduced to percentages, there is a close correspondence between the density of population and the percentage of culturable area available. The central portion of this Division, with its excellent rainfall and its high percentage of cultivated land, constitutes the area of maximum density of the province. To the west the final appears of the Arakan Yomas reduce the density of the western border of the Bassein

- 25. Specially Administered Territories.—No administrative statistics are available to test the various influences operating to produce the low density of 23 persons per square mile within the Specially Administered Territories of the province. Intermediate between the Northern Hill Districts and the Coast Ranges in position, in rainfall, and in general natural characteristics, they have an intermediate density of population, which is the resultant of similar forces working with a partial or moderating effect. The western portion comprising the Pakôkku Hill Tracts and the Chin Hills are so similar in their general condition to the remote portions of the Northern Hill Districts that the remarks made concerning the latter can be applied with scarcely any reservation to the latter. Very similar conditions apply over the greater portion of the Northern and Southern Shan States. It is only in the states of the Myelat and the Yaunghwe Valley that the existence of large culturable areas and the possibilities of communication with Burma have induced a comparatively high density of population.
- 26. General Summary.—It is now possible to make a general survey of the various forces which acting in widely diverse conditions produce the existing distribution of population within the province. More especially, it is possible to give an accurate estimate as to how far the principle that the primary influence on density is rainfall modified by irrigation, can be applied in Burma. The results though complex are reducible to complete harmony by an adequate consideration of all the forces operating. In brief, the province may be divided into two regions; the hilly envelope comprising the third, fourth and fifth of the natural divisions adopted, and the central valley and plain comprising the first and second divisions. Throughout the hill regions the influence of rainfall and irrigation are subordinate to that of contour, which operating through the media of communications, civilization, race and culturable area, primarily determines the distribution of the population and the number of its inhabitants. In the plain and valley region, if allowance be first made for the amount of culturable area available, then the amount of rainfall and the regularity of supply are the most important factors, and where the influence of rainfall ceases, that of irrigation begins.

#### TOWNS AND VILLAGES.

27. Definition of Town.—A complete discussion of the problems affecting the relative strength of the rural and urban population of Burma is a matter of extreme difficulty. It involves a consideration of the racial and industrial characteristics of its indigenous races, of the number and quality of its immigrants, and of the distribution and density of its general population. Moreover it necessitates an estimate of the influence exercised by the land policy of the Government on the tendencies towards rural and urban life respectively. The complexity of the problems is increased by the absence of any scientific definition of what constitutes a town. It is not exclusively a question of size, or of density, or of the nature of the dominating industry, or of the method of Local Government adopted. All these factors are relevant to a greater or less degree. But no criterion exists by which marginal or doubtful cases may be determined. Consequently for census purposes an unscientific and empirical definition in the following terms has been adopted.

Town includes-

- (1) Every municipality;
- (2) All civil lines not included within Municipal limits;
- (3) Every Cantonment;
- (4) Every other continuous collection of houses inhabited by not less than 5,000 persons which the Provincial Superintendent may decide to treat as a town for census purposes.

The absence of any precision in the definition leads to an absence of definite meaning in the resultant statistics. Many irrelevant considerations enter into the question whether a residential unit should be constituted a municipality, and numerous anomalies between district and district might be cited. Again, the Provincial Superintendent at the conclusion of census operations might be in a position to determine whether any continuous collection of houses should be treated as a census town; but he is called upon to make the decision at an initial stage when he is necessarily dependent on the opinion of the district officer.

28. Indeterminate Results.—The town of Insein the centre of the constructive activity of the Burma Railways Company, situated about 10 miles north of Rangoon will serve to illustrate the disturbance introduced by the absence of any distinguishing criterion between urban and rural areas. In 1901, although a town of about 11,000 inhabitants and of decided industrial and urban characteristics, it had not been created a municipality owing to a series of irrelevant causes. It was classed as a rural community and exercised a disturbing influence in a double direction, enhancing the rural at the expense of the urban population. It led to the striking conclusion that the district of Hanthawaddy, the most populous district in the whole of Burma, was inhabited by a purely rural population. Its disturbing effects still remain, for having been created a municipality in the interval between the two enumerations, it shows an apparent addition of 13,922 inhabitants to the urban population instead of a real addition of only 3,000 persons.

But it is rather in the contrary direction, in the over-estimation of the urban population, that the disturbance principally operates. This is indicated in paragraph

64 of the India Census Report for 1901 in the following statement:-

"Burma with 9'4 per cent. of its inhabitants living in towns, has in most parts a much smaller urban population than would appear from this figure."

Many of the towns included are almost exclusively agricultural and distributive. They have no special urban function or industry. They serve as centres for the collection, on a more or less retail scale, of the agricultural produce of the surrounding country, distributing in return the general necessaries of life to its inhabitants. A large proportion of their residents are purely agricultural in their pursuits and modes of life. They range from large and important country towns to residential units, not separated by any distinguishing characteristic from the larger villages of the province. It is a matter of accident, rather than of function, whether a community, ranging from 4,000 to 6,000 inhabitants, is enumerated as a town or a village. With such a broad and doubtful border line it is necessary that the figures showing the respective numbers of the rural and urban population of the province should not be accepted without some qualification.

29. Classes of Urban Population.—It is essential first of all to draw a distinction between towns with special industrial or urban characteristics and

Class.

those primarily of an agricultural or distributive character. Of the 63 towns, there are 14 only to be placed in the former category. Of these, six (Rangoon, Moulmein, Akyab, Bassein, Tavoy and Mergui) are seaports; two (Prome and Henzada) are inland ports of considerable dimensions; two (Insein and Syriam) are industrial communities in the vicinity of Rangoon; two (Mogôk and Yenangyaung) are principally concerned with the extraction of mineral products; Maymyo is a centre of provincial administration, and Mandalay is the centre of Burmese national life in its many aspects. The remaining 49 towns are country towns occupying an intermediate position between the central and industrial units on the one hand and the purely rural communities on the other.

1	<u> </u>	·
Towns with special urban characteristics.	Rangoon Mandalay Moulmein Akyab Bassein Prome Tavoy Henzada Mergui Insein Maymyo Mogôk Syriam Yenangyaung	293,316 138,299 57,582 37,893 37,081 26,911 25,074 25,052 14,889 13,992 11,974 11,069 10,897 8,896
	Total 14 (towns)	712,925
Agricultural and Distributive.	415,050	
Total (63 to	wns)	1,127,975

Town.

Population.

Their aggregate population (415,050) is much less than that of the 14 central and industrial towns (712,925). They serve to modify the impression produced by the percentage of 93 for

the total urban population of the province, their inhabitants accounting for 3.4 per cent., leaving 5.9 per cent. as the measure of the population living under distinctively urban conditions.

Class of Town.		No. of Towns.	Population.	Percentage of Provincial Population.
Central and Industrial Country		14 49	712,925 415,050	5°9 3°4
Total	•••	63	1,127,975	93

30. Comparison with 1901.—It is convenient in dealing with the question of urban population to ignore the rigid distinction between statical distribution and

dynamic variation which is necessary in the treatment of the population as a whole. Consequently the present discussion will anticipate much that should logically be deferred to the next Chapter. It is one of the numerous instances in which, in order to avoid a fragmentary consideration of some particular problem, the claims of theoretical arrangement must give place to those of practical expediency. The first difficulty arises in the want of correspondence in the constituent units of the urban populations of 1901 and 1911 respectively. Of the 52 census towns in 1901, and the 63 census towns of 1911, 48 only are common to both. Three of the towns included in 1901 have fallen out of the list, and 14 new towns have taken their place in 1911, while Pagan Municipality has been

Towns.	Population.		
Towns.	1911.	1901.	
52 towns (1901)		989,938	
4 excluded towns	·	18,945	
Rangeon (1901 boundary)		234,881	
47 coincident towns	728,926	736,112	
Rangoon (1911 boundary)	293,316	400	
15 new towns	105,690	•••	
63 fowns (1911)	1,127,975	•••	

transformed both in name and in status into Nyaung-u Notified Area. For the sake of convenience Pagan is treated as an excluded town, and Nyaung-u as a new town now included for the first time. A further difficulty in effecting a comparison is the transfer of large urban and suburban populations from Hanthawaddy District to the City of Rangoon in the interval between the two enumerations. The marginal statement succeeds in isolating the disturbing constituents, and the respective figures

for the remaining 47 coincident towns are of great value in estimating the conditions of urban life within the province.

31. Contrary tendencies of Urban Population.—It is remarkable that the aggregate population of the 47 comparable towns should have been 7,143 greater in 1901 than in 1911. Of course, this result is largely due to the exclusion of Rangoon from, and the inclusion of Mandalay within, the comparison. But even allowing for this the figures are sufficiently striking to justify a more detailed examination. Turning to Imperial Table IV, the entries in columns 9 and 10 are full of significance. In 1901 there are 19 towns out of a total of 48 showing a decrease of population during the preceding decade. In 1911 there are 17 towns showing a decrease, and one (Ngathainggyaung) with a stationary population. Thus over a period of two decades, while the population of the

Percentage of Urban Population.				
	1911.	1901.	1891.	
Burma Proper Province	6.3 10.0	10°7 9°4	12.4 12.4	

province has been steadily increasing at rates of 20 and 15'2 per cent., respectively, portions of its urban population have been subject to remarkable fluctuations. The exact degree of fluctuation has been obscured by extraneous factors; by the successive inclusion of fresh rural areas within the census limits, by the disproportionate expansion of the City of Rangoon, and by the variation in the constituent towns contributing to the aggregate

total. Under such conditions percentages are but partial or deceptive methods of presenting the variations. The inclusion of fresh rural areas has not been

Urban changes.	No.	Population.
New towns added Old towns excluded		18,945 (1911) 18,945 (1901)
Resultant	71	£6,745

The inclusion of fresh rural areas has not been sufficiently great to affect the figures for the past decade. The percentage of urban to the total population of the province has fallen slightly from 9'4 to 9'3, whereas for Burma Proper, an identical area for both enumerations, the percentage has similarly fallen from 10'7 to 10'6. The significance of these figures lies not so much in the fact that there has been a fall in the percentage,

as in the fact that the fall has occurred despite the net gain of a population of 86,745 in the 11 extra towns enumerated.

The extremely slight difference between the percentages of the urban population for 1901 and 1911, respectively, suggests that the loss of population by certain towns has been compensated by its increase in other towns and by the growth of the 15 new urban centres now included for the first time. It would almost appear as if the loss in one direction had been made good in another, leaving the proportion of urban to total population practically unaffected. Such a

conclusion, though apparently justified by the figures would not be consistent with the facts. It may safely be said with respect to 13 out of the 15 new towns that they exhibit exactly the same characteristics under a different label. For instance, Insein was labelled a rural area in 1901 and is now labelled an urban area, but its characteristics have been the same at both periods. Syriam and Mogôk are the only two new towns which could be claimed as genuine additions to the urban population. The percentage has only been maintained by the transfer of large numbers of persons from one class to another, by the operation of irrelevant causes, without any corresponding change in conditions.

The examination of totals and general percentages having proved ineffectual

in obtaining credible results, nothing remains but a detailed analysis of the figures for individual They may be towns. divided into three groups according as they exhibit progressive tendencies, or are in a declining or stationary condition, or are entered as towns for the first time. It will simplify matters to assume, quite legitimately, that the new towns should be entered as being progressive. If this assumption be made, the 63 census towns comprise 37 progressive towns and 26 which are stationary or declining. Roughly, threesevenths of the urban population of the province live in towns which seem to be divorced entirely from the general progressive life of the province. line of division

Progressive	Towns.	Declining or Stationary Towns.		New Towns.	
- Name.	Popula-	Name.	Popula-	Name.	Popula-
Sandoway Rangoon Thônzh Letpadan Gyobingauk Pegu Paungde Bassein Henrada Myanaung Myaung- mya. Ma-ubin Thatôn Tavoy Mergui Allan-Ywa taung. Taung- dwingyi. Maymyo Shwebo Mônywa Yenan- gyaung. Sagaing	3,360 293,316 6,929 9,247 7,410 17,104 12,104 37,081 25,052 8,331 0,501 7,022 14,391 25,074 14,889 12,894 (A07 11,974 10,629 8,625 8,625	Akyab Kyaukpyu Prome Shwedaung Ngathaing- gyaung. Zalun Lemyethan Kyangin Vandoon Toungoo Shwegyin Kyaikto Mundoon Mundoon Mundoon Magwe Mandalay Amarapura Bhaino Kyaukse Meiktila Vyamèthin Pyinmana Myingyan	37,893 3,323 20,911 9,021 7,182 6,155 5,372 8,386 12,500 18,546 8,037 6,127 57,582 11,577 20,010 5,501 7,547 4,967 138,299 7,866 9,762 5,877 7,076 8,083 14,074 16,379		10,897 13,992 5,429 7,051 7,065 8,438 3,279 6,189 5,053 5,063 11,069 3,592 4,571 5,726
23	558,232	26	464,053	15	105,690

between progressive and non-progressive towns has no relation whatever to the distinction, previously considered, between country towns and towns with special urban characteristics. In-

urban characteristics. Indeed, four out of the six largest industrial towns are to be found in the non-progressive category. The causes underlying the complex movements of the urban population

Nature of Town.	No. of Towns.	Population.	Percentage of total population.
New and progressive Declining and stationary	1 26	663,922 464,053	5'3 4'0
Total	63	1,127,975	9'3

though allied to the primary distinction between industrial and agricultural towns do not follow closely their line of cleavage.

32. Effect of Agricultural Development on Urban Population.—It is possible to give some specific, conclusive, local reason in each instance for the failure of the 26 non-progressive towns to keep pace with the general movement of the province for the past twenty years. And yet such detailed explanations would be of little value. The symptoms are too wide spread to be the result of the operation of purely local causes. There must be some broad, potent influence, operating over a wide range of space and time, to produce so extensive and so unexpected a result. An untimely outbreak of plague, the silting of a river channel, the deterrent effect of Municipal taxation, and similar minor causes, may be ostensible and genuine immediate factors in the diminution of the population of a town. But such factors could not simultaneously prevail over a wide area if the urban population of the province were proportionate to the economic functions it performed. The existence of so large a proportion of non-progressive towns in

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a rapidly progressive province indicates some mal-adjustment of population gradually being corrected by the transfer of the superfluous urban inhabitants to localities where their services are more urgently required. It suggests a natural spontaneous movement back to the land. It implies an exact reversal of the economic conditions which are driving the surplus rural population of Western Europe into the towns. It is in fact due to a comprehensive instinctive effort to effect the colonisation of the waste places of the province. The movement from the towns is but one aspect of the general movement towards its available culturable areas. It is in this direction, and not in a minute examination of petty, partial and diverse local causes, that the true solution of the problems of the urban population of Burma is to be found. In the past, circumstances have permitted a larger concentration of the population in towns than modern conditions The Burman is extremely fond of the amenities of town life, but is most averse to the hard, rigid discipline essential to modern urban industry. ideal is an urban life with an agricultural occupation. Want of security and the comparatively small area of cultivated land tended in the past towards its realisation. But with the advent of peace and security the possible area of cultivation has widely High prices, a strong export demand, the certainty of a market, and land waiting to be cultivated, have combined to exert a strong economic pressure towards areas remote from the possibility of urban residence. The policy of the Government in preventing the wholesale appropriation of available areas, and in making a plot of 15 acres the unit of distribution, has tended to effect a wide dispersal of population, and to perpetuate the conditions of dispersion. The object of the government, the establishment of a peasant proprietary on the land gradually coming under occupation, has stimulated the growth of an agricultural, rather than of an urban population. It has happened that some towns, peculiarly well situated for the collection and transport of the enhanced agricultural products, have benefited by the new conditions. Others, with well established industries, have progressed in spite of them. But for the 26 towns which have been classed as non-progressive it can generally be concluded that whatever may be the local immediate factor ostensibly operating, they have ceased to progress because the demand for agricultural extension has been irresistably attracting their actual or potential surplus population.

33. City of Rangoon.—The population of Rangoon increased from 234,881 in 1901 to 293,316 in 1911. Part of this increase was due to an extension

Population of Rangoon adjusted to 1911 boundaries.				
		Increase.		
Year.	Population.	Actual.	Per cent	
1872	98,745			
1631	134,176	35,431	36	
1891	182,0S0	47,904	36	
1901	245,430	63,350	35	
1911	293,316	47,586	20	
Increase	since 1872	194,571	197	

of its limits, a suburban area on its northern boundary and an urban area on the Kanaungto Creek being transferred from the Hanthawaddy District. The population for 1901 within the boundaries, as subsequently adjusted, has been calculated to be 245,430. The increase of the population since 1901 is therefore 47,886 or approximately 20 per cent. Since the first census in 1872, the population has increased by 194,571 or 197 per cent. on its original population of 98,745.

Considerable surprise was expressed when the figures were published. It was confidently anticipated that they would exceed 300,000, and

anticipated that they would exceed 300,000, and in many quarters a much higher figure was anticipated. The rate of increase since the first census was taken in 1872 had been consistently about 35 or 36 per cent. and a similar rate was assumed to have been in operation during the decade just completed. Allowing for the population introduced by the change in area, the actual rate of increase of 20 per cent. was considered to be unduly low. The figures, however came as no surprise to persons who had really studied the conditions affecting the progress of population in Rangoon for the period 1901 to 1911. Its commencement was signalised by a land boom of extensive dimensions the effects of which are felt in the commercial activity of the city up till the present day. Towards the close of the period a mania for stock exchange speculation raged, followed in dur course by a reaction which was particularly acute at the time of the census. Thus, although there has been a general period of advancement and prosperity, their full effects have not been realized. Much capital that would otherwise have been devoted to legitimate enterprise has been dissipated in fruitless speculations in land and shares. The lessened rate of increase is a reflection of the influences

which have been operating to minimise the generally advancing prosperity of

the city.

But apart entirely from local considerations, a new influence has recently arisen affecting not only the population of Rangoon but also the broader question of the immigration into the province of Burma. The striking development of the rubber industry in the Federated Malay States within the past few years has led to a large demand for cooly labour from Southern India. The sources from which Rangoon has been accustomed to draw its supplies of manual labour are now subjected to a drain in other directions. It is not possible to anticipate the consideration of the general question of immigration into Burma, which will be given in Chapter III of this Volume. But it may be briefly stated that the effect of the competition thus introduced has been to materially diminish the net gain to the population of the province by immigration. How vitally the population of Rangoon is effected by such an influence can only be gauged by reference to the extreme disparity existing between its male and female population of 208,111 and 85,205 respectively. The natural increase of any community is proportionate to its female, rather than to its total, population. Any undue shortage in the proportion of females requires compensation by immigration from outside sources. A glance forward to column 6 of Subsidiary Table III of Chapter II showing a deficiency of 53,745 for the decade in the number of births compared with the number of deaths affords another illustration of the same principle. Even to maintain the population of Rangoon in a state of equilibrium, immigration from outside sources is essential; but to overcome a natural tendency to decreasing numbers and to produce an enhancement of 35 per cent. within a period of ten years, requires a combination of extremely favourable internal and external conditions. Such a combination has not existed. Both internally and externally, forces have been operating to prevent the maintenance of the rate of increase of the population of Rangoon at the rate which it has previously been progressing.

34. Overcrowding in Rangoon.—The problem of overcrowding in Burma arises only so far as the central area of the city of Rangoon is concerned.

A superficial study of the figures for Rangoon as given in the various columns of Subsidiary Table VII would suggest that it is much less acute in 1911 than it was in 1901. The number of houses per square mile has diminished from 2,064 to 1,774, and the average number of inhabitants per house has

	1901.	1901 (Present boundaries).	1911.
Population Area (sq. miles) Population per sq. mile Houses per sq. mile Persons per house	234,881	245,430	293,316
	19	28	28
	12,362	8,765	10,476
	2,064	Not	1,77.4
	5'99	calculated.	5'91

diminished from 5'99 to 5'91. But these changes are not due to any such improvement in housing conditions. They are the resultant of an extension of the city boundaries to include an area of nine square miles relatively less densely populated than the original area. If a comparison be made of the population of equivalent areas for the years 1901 and 1911, it will be seen that the density of population, instead of diminishing from 12,362 to 10,476 per square mile, has in reality increased from 8,765 to the latter figure. The problem is very largely not one of space but of racial habits. The immigrant cooly from Southern India is accustomed to live in overcrowded barracks whatever may be the area of dwelling space available. It is probable that he lives in less congested conditions in Rangoon where skilled supervision is effective in controlling the more extreme

abuses of overcrowding, than in the surrounding district where no such supervision is exercised. Overcrowding caused by want of space is manifest in the area lying between Godwin Road and Judah Ezekiel Street, as its western and eastern boundaries, and between Montgomery, Fraser, Canal Streets and the Rangoon River. The population of this area of 468.7 acres has increased from 73,309 to 80,942 in the past ten

Congested area of Rangoon.				
. 1901. 1911.				
Area (acres) Population Density per sq. mile	468· 7 73,309 100,102	468.7 80,942 110,524		

years. The resultant density of 110,524 persons per square mile is exceedingly high, though it is largely exceeded by the more congested portions of other cities in India. Thus, in the Colootola, Jorasanko and Joraban wards in the heart of the old town of Calcutta, the densities of population were 281, 202 and 201 persons per acre, respectively and in the headquarters of the Jain community in

Bombay, densities of 598 and 556 persons per acre are recorded. Compared with these densities, that of 110, 524 persons per square mile, or 172 per acre, is not excessive for the most congested quarter of the City of Rangoon.

35. City of Mandalay.—The most striking phenomenon revealed by the census figures for 1911 is the large decline in the population of the city of Mandalay. Some diminution in numbers was anticipated. But a decrease of 45,517 persons, or 25 per pent. of the population of 1901 was beyond all expectations. Yet the figures are explainable by a consideration of the cumulative effect of all the adverse

		Decr	ease.
Year.	Population,	Actual,	Per cent.
1891 1901	188,815 183,816 138,299	4,999 45,517	3 25

influences to which the city has been subjected. The creation of Mandalay as a Burmese capital is too recent for its population to have become rooted to the spot by the force of lengthy association. With the abolition of the Burmese Court the period of decline commenced. For a period this was masked by counteracting influences. The construction of a railway with Mandalay as its extreme northern terminus enhanced its commercial activity.

while its adoption as the military and administrative centre of the recently annexed territory partly compensated for the loss of the Court. It was not till the railway was extended northwards towards Myitkyina and through the Shan States to Lashio that the extent of the decline was fully manifested. Its activity as a collecting and distributing centre for the northern portions of Burma and the Shan States was greatly curtailed, and its area of commercial dominance was reduced to extremely narrow dimensions. Almost simultaneously, with the creation of a hill station at Maymyo, the importance of Mandalay as a military and administrative centre rapidly decreased. Other influences have been at work. For several years plague has acted as an effectual factor in the dispersal of the population of the declining city. At the date of the census it was estimated that owing to this cause nearly 10,000 of its population were temporarily absent. But when a city is in a stage of decline, intentions of temporary absence are apt to result in permanent departure. Another contributory to the magnitude of the decrease was an extensive fire which destroyed over a square mile of the most populous portion of the city a few months prior to the census enumeration. And during the entire period of the operation of these adverse influences of fire, plague and commercial and administrative readjustments there was a strong insistent demand for population to cultivate the waste areas of the province.

It is to the cumulative effect of these forces both national and local, the broad general trend of national life in combination with the rapid incisive movements of local conditions, that the remarkable decrease in the population of the City of Mandalay is to be attributed. The successive declines of 3 and 25 per cent. in the population of the second city of a province, whose expansion for the same periods has been at the rates of 20 and 15 per cent., respectively, is an exceptional phenomenon which at first appears to elude explanation. But a careful analysis of the conditions obtaining has proved that the figures are a credible representation of the resultant of the forces operating.

36. Urban Population by Religions.—In the course of the preceding discussion, a few suggestions may be found to the effect that the movement from

		19	11.	1901.			
Religion.		Actual.	Percent- age.	Actual.	Percent-		
Buddhist Animist Hindu Mahomedan Christian Others		693,589 24,821 207,601 147,907 47,099 6,958	61'5 2'2 18'4 13'1 4'2 '6	668,623 13,294 155,563 115,808 32,457 4,193	67.6 1.3 15.7 11.7 3.3 '4		
Total	•••	1,127,975	100	989,938	100		

town to country is largely racial in its operation. No analysis of the urban population by races has been effected, but racial and religious differences coincide so closely that the figures for religion may be utilized with almost equal effect. The Buddhist population comprises the indigenous races (preponderantly Burmese) in towns. The Animist urban population is almost exclusively Chinese, the indigenous Animist races not being

town dwellers. The figures for Hindus and Mahomedans can be taken as representing either immigrants from India or their descendants. The Christian

population is rather less homogeneous, comprising Europeans, Anglo-Indians and Indian and indigenous Christians of various races.

The most trustworthy estimate of the extent of the movement from town to country is to be found in the relative decrease in the Buddhist urban population. Although reinforced by a net gain of eleven towns mainly Buddhist in character, the percentage of Buddhists to the total urban population has declined in the decade from 67 6 per cent. to 61 5 per cent. The actual increase of approximately 25,000 is far less than the number of Buddhists nominally added to the urban population by the inclusion of the eleven extra towns. Simultaneously, with this relative, and in some respects actual, decrease of the Buddhist population, there has been an increase, both actual and relative, in all the other constituent elements. The figures for Animists suggest that the Chinese population in the towns has nearly doubled. Those for Hindus and Mahomedans demonstrate that the Indian residents have increased from 27 4 per cent. to 31 5 per cent, and now form nearly one-third of the

total urban population.

Subsidiary Table IV presents another aspect of the composition of the urban population of the Province. Over one-half of its Hindu inhabitants and over onethird of its Mahomedan inhabitants live in towns compared with so low a proportion as 7.5 per cent, of the Buddhist community. The discrepancy between these proportions is even greater if specific portions of the Province are made the basis of the comparison. In the Deltaic Plains, the Hindus to the extent of 53'7 per cent, and the Mahomedans to the extent of 63.1 per cent, of their numbers are town dwellers as compared with a Buddhist proportion of only 8 per cent. In the Central Basin, considerably more than half of both the Hindu and Mahomedan populations reside within town limits. An apparent modification to the general rule shown by the low percentage of 13'9 for the Mahomedan population dwelling This is due to the fact that a large number of indigenous, in the Coast Towns. and therefore agricultural, Mahomedans are to be found in most of the littoral districts of the Province. Apart from this exception, over one-half of the Hindu and Mahomedan immigrants and their descendants within the province are congregated within its towns. While the Buddhist races have been tending towards the resumption of a more agricultural life, the immigrant races have been supplying the demand for population suited to the requirements of modern industrial conditions. It is easy to magnify the forces at work and to over-estimate their resultant effects. Modern industrial conditions are in their infancy. They affect but a small portion

of the population, even of the urban population. The extent to which they have actually operated may be gauged by a separate consideration of the six towns have been most where they effective, and a comparison of the religious distribution of their inhabitants with that of the remaining fifty-seven towns in the province. The six selected towns are the four large ports of Rangoon, Moulmein, Akyab Bassein, and the two and

Policion	Religion.		ed Towns.	Remaining fifty- seven Towns.			
rectifiant.		Actual.	Percent-	Actual.	Percent-		
Buddhist Animiet Hindu Mahomedan Christian Others		167,520 10,764 150,113 89,139 29,938 3,287	37 <sup>2</sup> 2·4 33 <sup>3</sup> 19·8 6·6	526,069 14,057 57,488 58,768 17,161 3,671	77.7 2.1 8.5 8.7 2.5		
Total	•••	450,761	100	677,214	100		

industrial towns of Insein and Syriam which may almost be considered as suburbs of Rangoon. They comprise 450,761 inhabitants, or approximately 3.7 per cent. of the total population. Within their limits, the proportion of the Buddhist population has declined till it only forms 37.2 per cent. of the whole. Their inhabitants professing other religions, and therefore principally non-indigenous, comprise the remaining 62.8 per cent. Over the remaining fifty-seven towns which include the majority of the provincial urban population, the indigenous Buddhist population still amounts to 77.7 per cent. of the whole, leaving less than a quarter to be distributed among the various immigrant populations.

37. Summary.—It is a matter of extreme difficulty to obtain a correct conclusion from the total figures and the general percentages of the urban population of Burma. The real facts are obscured, partly by the want of coincidence of the constituent towns at successive enumerations, partly by the absence of any scientific distinction between urban and rural populations, and partly by a want of uniformity in the manifestation of the operating forces. But penetrating beneath

this obscurity, two definite and distinct tendencies are observed. The first is a slow but continuous transfer of a portion of the indigenous population from the towns to the available uncultivated areas of the province. The second is a complementary invasion of the towns by the members of alien races who are quite prepared to undertake the mechanical and routine occupations of modern industry. The two movements act and react upon one another. At the present time they are tending towards a racial cleavage between the rural and urban populations of the province. tendency is by no means extensive, or established, or permanent, or inevitable. The occupation of available land by the indigenous races is not a process capable of Neither is the continued future immigration of Indians and indefinite extension. Chinese in large numbers a matter of absolute certainty. For the time being, the Burmese and their allied races find their greatest economic advantage in an agricul-But when the conditions change, when the available culturable areas diminish, and their occupation becomes less prolitable, it is probable that their powers of adaptation will be adequate to check the present tendencies, and to secure a predominant influence on both the urban and the rural development of Burmese national life.

38. Burmese Villages.—It is singular that in a work touching with illuminating effect almost every aspect of Burmese life, a special consideration of the general village life of the people should have been omitted. Although 92.5 per cent. of the Buddhist inhabitants of Burma proper reside in villages, there is no chapter on village life in Shway Yoe's standard work on the Burman, his life and notions. It might almost be said that village life is so inseparable from life in general in Burma, that it pervades every chapter of the book, and that its treatment in a special chapter would be less effective than the assumption throughout the volumes that each and every phase is portrayed with the village as the background. Though the Burman ideal is to dwell in a town, it is seldom capable of realisation; and it is almost impossible to obtain an impression of his national characteristics except in a setting of village life.

The Burman satisfies his craving for the amenities of social life by congregating in the largest village which will permit of reasonable access to his daily occupation. The solitary farmhouse in the centre of the agricultural holding is not a feature of the Burmese landscape. Conditions of security of life and property, rigidly enforced by legislative enactments, preclude the possibility of any such system. During the cultivating season a temporary hut in the vicinity of a holding distant from a village may be necessary, and permission is readily given by the administrative authorities to meet such cases. But with the harvesting of the crop such dwellings are dismantled and abandoned, and village life resumes its accustomed course.

In its rudimentary form, the Burmese village consists of two long rows of bamboo dwellings extending on each side of the road which forms its means of There are necessary modifications where it communication with the outer world. is situated on the banks of a stream or on one bank of a larger river. larger villages shorter supplementary roads run parallel with the main artery and are connected with it by means of small subsidiary pathways. The main road is generally raised and occasionally paved with bricks set edgeways in chessboard patterns. In a conspicuous part of the village, usually at one of its extremities, are the pagodas, the monasteries, the shrines and the rest-houses essential to the complete religious life of the community. In Upper Burma all villages are enclosed in a fence of thorn or bamboo, two or more gates, which are closed and guarded at night, giving access from the main points of approach. In most districts of Lower Burma, partly owing to the custom of fencing having been allowed to lapse after the British occupation, partly to the difficulty of obtaining fencing material, and partly to the rapid rate of expansion, villages are rarely fenced, though in a few districts adjoining Upper Burma fencing is rigidly enforced. Each house is detached from its neighbours and is set in a compound combining in various degrees the respective characteristics of orchard, farmyard and vegetable garden. Industrially, the Burmese village is not a self-sufficing unit to the same extent as the village in India. For the greater part of the year it is independent of the outside world for its requirements, but as harvest approaches it is drawn into contact with the wider life of the community in many ways. First, the peripatetic broker, the representative of some local or central paddy firm, arrives to arrange for the purchase of the crops the price paid generally varying inversely with the necessity for an immediate payment or advance. Then the harvest and the movement of the crops to the nearest railway station or landing place occurs,

followed immediately by the arrival of travelling pedlars with general requirements for the villagers until their next harvest matures. Necessities having been provided and religious obligations fulfilled, surplus proceeds are usually devoted to recreative purposes, theatrical companies travelling from village to village being the principal means of satisfaction. After a few eventful months, the village lapses into its state of semi-independence of the external world until its next harvest approaches. The administrative control of the village is vested in a village headman whose jurisdiction generally includes two or more of the residential units just described. He has extensive powers of administration including the trial of petty offences, the decision of minor civil disputes, and now he is being gradually made the principal revenue collecting agency of the province. Indeed in all matters he is the point of contact of the central government with the people at large. Other aspects of village life will be considered incidentally in their appropriate chapters; but the brief description of its broad characteristics now given is necessary before the connection between the census figures and the actual facts they purport to portray can be appreciated.

- 39. Administrative Villages.—There are two methods by which the statistics relating to village life can be presented, according to residential or administrative village units. Both are equally untrustworthy. The administrative village has been in a state of transition for the past twenty years. In order that the village headman shall receive a remuneration proportionate to his responsibilities the methods of collection of revenue are being transformed. The more centralised collecting agencies are gradually being abolished, and the administrative village, under the name of the Village-tract, is now becoming the unit of revenue collection, as well as the unit of general administration. Consequently, many considerations irrelevant to the village life of the community enter into its formation. contain one or more separate hamlets within its borders, or its boundaries may cut with seeming irrelevancy through the heart of some large central residential unit. The governing principles determining its formation are, that its area must not be too great for the control of a village headman, and its revenues must be sufficient to afford by the commission on their collection an adequate remuneration for his It is obvious that any figures as to the number of various responsibilities. inhabitants or houses per village tract are governed by these administrative con-They are divorced from the actual intimate life of the people. increase in the average population per village tract may mean either a readjustment, by amalgamation or subdivision, of the official scheme of jurisdictions, a process in continual action. It may mean the creation of fresh hamlets and may conceivably accompany a dispersal of population from the central hamlet of the tract.
- 40. Residential Villages. To obviate such anomalies and to obtain figures really representing the village life of the community, Mr. Lowis in 1901 made a bold attempt to classify the village population by residential hamlets instead of by administrative village tracts. It is doubtful if by this method any closer approach to reality was effected. In order to accomplish the actual work of enumeration the administrative village must be recognised. It forms the only conceivable means by which the record of the enumeration results But it has been seen that the administrative and residential village boundaries do not necessarily correspond. A large residential village may fall within five or six village tracts. It is a centre from which the surrounding country is governed, each village tract radiating from the common centre and containing as its nucleus a sector from the central village. All such sectors must be treated separately in the actual course of enumeration, and it is difficult to conceive machinery which would effect the amalgamation of the severed portions at any subsequent period. Consequently such a central village, a common feature in the administration of most districts in the province, would be entered several times in the final returns as a number of smaller separate units. Furthermore, camps, landing places, temporary collections of huts, and any places which need to be formed into separate census units, without the most rigid supervision are liable to None of the census registers give informabe entered as actual residential units. tion which enables the residential unit to be automatically distinguished from the census unit in the great majority of cases. Except where such an automatic check is possible, the census block is entered as a residential unit and tends to unduly increase the number of villages with a small population. So doubtful were the advantages of the classification by residential units, that at a conference held in

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February 1910 Mr. Lowis was of the opinion that existing conditions were such that he would be inclined to favour that adoption of the village tract as the census unit. A more complete discussion of the comparative disabilities of the two alternative methods of presentation is given in the companion volume devoted to census technique and administration.

41. Village Population.—It is obvious that for many reasons no trust-worthy conclusions concerning village life can be deduced from any figures that can be presented. In the census between the enumerations of 1891 and 1911, a different unit of classification was adopted, entirely precluding the possibility of

Village popu	ilation—Burn	a proper.	
	1891.	1901.	1911.
Number of Villages Number of Village houses Average number of houses per Village.	28,709 1,249,522 44	44,955 1,662,422 37	18,640 1,958,296 105
Average population per Village.	233	r84	_ 509
Percentage of Village to total population.	82.2	90.6	90 <b>`</b> 7

effective comparison. Nor, if the intermediate figures for 1901 be eliminated from the comparison, is the result any more reliable. The reduction in the number of villages in Burma proper from 28,709 in 1891 to 18,640 in 1911 represents technical and administrative changes rather than any change in the actual numbers of villages existing at these respective dates. In 1891, the administrative village had not crystallized into

a unit essential to all branches of the administration. It had not been numbered and registered. It had not even been given an official designation, and was generally referred to obliquely as to the jurisdiction of a Village Headman. Under such circumstances, there was no means of checking the accuracy of the number of Villages returned. For the current census, any departure in the number of census villages from the official lists of village tracts maintained at the district headquarters was a source of enquiry, continued until the discrepancies were reconciled. A comparison between the freshly created units of 1891 and the finished products of 1911 is devoid of value. But even if a purely statical analysis of the village population is attempted, the results are equally inconclusive. The fact that the average number of houses in a village is 105 simply indicates that experience has led to the formation of village tracts containing on an average this number of houses. They may be concentrated in one large central village or separated in a series of hamlets at a considerable distance from each other. They may form a certain portion of a large central residential unit, with or without the addition of smaller, more or less distant, hamlets. Exactly the same remarks might be made concerning the fact that the average population per village is 509. Nor can any important deductions be drawn from the increase in the village population of Burma proper from 8,262,937 to 9,482,281 inhabitants, in a proportion so exactly similar to the general increase for the province, that the percentages of the whole remain practically unchanged. Such figures obscure the real growth of village population by suggesting that mere transfers of residential units from the category of villages to that of towns is necessarily accompanied by a change in their essential characteristics. In reality, village growth has been greater than the figures would imply. There is promise of better results from the figures for the number of houses within village limits, the expansion of their numbers at a considerably greater rate than the expansion of the village population being quite unconnected with administrative changes. The exact import of these diverging rates of change can however be considered better with reference to the average population per house rather than in the course of a treatment of the problems of village population. Practically, the statistics of the population of rural areas are interesting as measuring the nature and extent of administrative changes, but are valueless for the purpose of illustrating any phases of the life and habits of the people.

### HOUSES AND FAMILIES.

42. Definition of a House.—For the purpose of the census, the following definition of a house was framed as the most suitable for covering widely varying conditions:—

<sup>&</sup>quot; House ordinarily means the separate residence of a family. The criterion to determine

whether a residence is separate is that it should be an enclosed building having a separate entrance from the common way. This definition will cover over ninety per cent. of the houses in the rural areas of the province. For the remaining exceptional cases, and for towns, as near an approximation as is possible to the above definition should be adopted. Alternative definitions of a house in towns are—

"(i) a building separately assessed to Municipal taxation;

"(ii) a tenement."
"Where it is possible to readily identify the tenement as a residential unit (as in Rangoon Town), it would appear to be the more appropriate definition to adopt. The tenement should invariably be taken as the house in the case of coolie lines and lodging-houses. When servants' quarters are in separate blocks, each block should be treated as a separate house."

The intention in framing this definition was to avoid any rigid definition which would be difficult of application in unforeseen circumstances. Two elements were considered primary, those of "family life" and "separate entrance"; but the definition was purposely left vague to allow of the application of these principles according to local conditions. Inspections tended to show that the definition led to over-minute distinctions. In Rangoon, tenement was suggested as the residential unit to adopt; but in actual practice, it was interpreted to be the separate apartment, and indeed the two generally coincide.

43. Description of House.—It is necessary for a correct appreciation of the published figures to obtain a more real conception of the Burmese house as it exists than is given by the mere technical definition adopted for census purposes. The following extract from Chapter IX of the first Volume of Shway Yoe's work on "The Burman" gives the necessary information:—

"The Burman's dwelling, then, is always shaped more or less like a marquee tent, and never more than one storey high, to avoid the humiliating possibility of the feet of some one being over your head. But the whole house stands on posts, so that the floor is seven or eight feet from the ground. It consists often of only one room, usually, however, of two or more, and to the front of the house there is always a verandah, three or four feet lower than the general level of the house, and as often as not quite open to the street, or the garden, or whatever may be in front. The posts which form the main or central part of the house are usually six in number, and all have their names, such as Oo-yoo, Kyah-hngan, Nyoung-yan. Poor people use bamboo instead of wood, and make their walls of mats, woven of the same substance, split up. Occasionally, however, they rise to the dignity of common jungle timber. Richer people make use of the invaluable teak, or of pyinkado, a wood almost as durable, and equally expensive. White ants will attack neither of these. The walls of such houses are planked. The roof is sometimes composed of small flat tiles, but more commonly of thatch. In Rangoon and Moulmein, shingles, that is, small wooden slabs like slates, are being very generally introduced. In the better class of houses the floors are made of planking but poor r people have nothing better than a series of whole bamboos hid side by side on the cross-beams and tied down with rattans. This is not very pleasant to walk on, and has the further disadvantage of being anything but cleanly, for the spaces between the bamboos offer an irresistible temptation, to drop all litter and garbage on to the ground immediately underneath the house, and were it not for the pariah dogs the sanitary condition of the place would soon be very bad."

The principal changes introduced by lapse of time are the substitution of zinc as a material for roofing the better class of houses in the larger villages, and the gradual decay of the Burman prejudice against houses of two stories.

44. Number of Houses per Square Mile.—The figures in columns 6 and 9 of Subsidiary Table VII appended to this Chapter show a remarkable increase in the number of houses per square mile. Part of this increase, especially between the years 1891 and 1901, is due either to the closer enumeration of the latter year, or to the enumeration of portions of districts omitted in the former year. But this disturbance in the relative figures has but little weight in the comparison of the figures for 1901 and 1911. Considering Burma proper only, and thereby removing entirely the disturbing effects of the inclusion of new areas, the number of houses has increased from 109 to 132 per square mile. It is possible that this increase may be due partly to a different application of the term "house" when effecting the enumeration. The definition of the term "house" adopted in 1901 left the application entirely to the discretion of local officials. In the current census greater precision of the definition was attempted; but the application of the definition to local circumstances was left for local officers to determine. The

effect of the change in the definition may have been a tendency towards over subdivision especially in towns; but the same tendency existed, notably in Rangoon, at the census of 1901. From enquiries made in the course of inspection, I came to the conclusion that the application of the definition was much the same on both occasions, and that the possibilities of variation of application in rural areas was extremely small.

45. Average Population per House.—The best method of considering the causes which have produced the relatively greater increase of houses as

Average popul	lation p	er house.	•
	1891.	iņai.	1911.
Urban Rural Burma Proper	5°27 5'34 5'39	5.87 4.97 5.05	5°29 4°84 4°89

compared with population can best be studied by a consideration of the average population per house. From the definition of house adopted and also from its method of application, it is clear that the average number of persons per house corresponds with the average size of the Burmese family. The figures in columns 2 to 5 of Subsidiary Table VII, showing generally a successive decline in the average population per house, are therefore of

considerable significance. In the census report for 1901, Mr. Lowis drew attention to the diminution in the average number of residents per house in rural areas side by side with an increase in the average for the urban population. He, however, considered that the possibilities of variation introduced by differences of treatment rendered doubtful any far-reaching conclusions. The present figures show a diminution in the average population per house both in rural and urban areas. I agree with Mr. Lowis in thinking that the possibilities of variation in the application of the definition of a house in urban areas is so great that it would be unsafe to base important conclusions on the resulting averages. But in rural areas, it may be assumed that the possibilities of error are comparatively slight, and the successive diminution in the average from 5.34 in 1891 and 4.97 in 1901 to 4.84 in 1911 does really represent a gradual change in the constitution or the size of the Burmese family. The following extract from Chapter VII of Shway Yoe's work on "The Burman" written in 1882 indicates the extent to which the size of a family might be effected by the custom of married couples after marriage living in the house of the bride's parents:—

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE 1.—Density, Water-Supply and Crops.

	-										
	ser square	Percentetal	tage of area.	culti	tage to vable value	cultivated rrigated.	11.	Perce	ntage of area	gross cu under	ltivated
District and Natural Division.	Mean density per square mile in 1911.	Cultivable.	Net cultivated.	(1) Net culti-	(1) Double cropped.	Percentage of cultivated area which is irrigated.	Normal rainfall.	Rice.	Other cereals and pulses.	Oil seeds.	Other crops.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
<u></u>				ĺ							
Province	53		•••				93	•••		•••	
Burma Froper	65	40	17	42		8	95	71	12	9	8
I.—Central Basin	23	46	10	41	3	18	38	38	20	22	11
Prome Thayetmyo Pakökku Minbu Magwe Mandalay Shwebo Sagaing Lower Chindwin Kyauksè Meiktila Yamèthin Myingyan	130 52 56 80 96 161 62 171 111 128 72	32 27 26 30 56 18 51 83 52 40 67 60 73	18 6 19 11 10 42 23 21 29 14 32	562 737 377 351 44 5433 44	;;5394;;:86;6	16 6 77 158 4 2 7 3 3 6 5 8 4 3 3 8 4	50 40 42 37 38 37 33 27 34 33 40 44 35	86 51 11 36 27 59 80 22 24 63 42 73	3 6 45 28 31 22 9 42 45 9 23 9 43	27 20 27 40 4 8 22 25 14 20 14 39	11 16 24 9 2 15 3 14 6 14 15 4 8
II.—Deltaic Plains	124	40	20	59	`		117	94		<i>.</i>	6
Rangoen Hanthawaddy Tharrawaddy Pegu Bassein Henzada Myaungmya Ma-ubin Pyapēn Thatēn Toungoo	10,476 177 151 97 107 187 127 185 119 85	146 596 58 596 67 60 15	14 61 27 30 24 30 24 40 44 21	92 46 83 43 79 438 66 35 67		    	104 121 71 137 117 74 100 93 103 215 148	43 94 94 98 93 87 96 88 98 92 92	2		57 6 4 2 7 11 4 11 2 8
III.—Northern Hill Dis- tricts.	15	22	1	Б	•••	24	67	91	1	1	7
Bhamo Myitkyina Katha Ruby Mines Upper Chindwin	16 8 28 18	32 32 20 14 19	1  4  1	3 1 20 4 4	•••	27 33 35 29	69 80 61 58 67	92 76 97 71 89	   4	 I	8 24 2 29 6
IV.—Coast Ranges	38	39	- 6	14			174	88	•••		12
Akyab Northern Arakan Kyaukpyu Sandoway Salween Amherst Tavoy Mergui	103 15 42 27 17 52 25	70 86 12 4 2 43 28 40	21  7 3 1 11 4 2	30 ::8 75 54 20 14 5	•••	  I	172 118 195 208 110 207 227 155	93 75 92 87 84 90 74 73	0. 02 00. 00. 00. 00.		7 25 8 13 16 10 26 27
V.—Specially Adminis- tered Territories.	23						82	· <b></b>			
Northern Shan States Southern Shan States Pakökku Hill Tracts Chin Hills	3 <sup>2</sup> 2 <sup>2</sup> - 7 15	}	Not	availal	ile.	{	68 81 114 65	Not	availab	le.	

# SUBSIDIARY TABLE II.—Distribution of the Population classified according to Density.

	1	<u> </u>			Town	iships w	vith a pop	ulation	per sq	uare 1	nile o	f	<del>`</del>				-	
Natural Division.	Under	50.	501	00.	100-	150.	150—	300.	300-	450.	450-	-600.	500-	-750.	750—1	000.	1,000 0V	and er.
	Area.	Persons ooo's omitted,	Area.	Persons ooo's omitted.	Агеа,	Persons ooo's omitted.	Area.	Persons ooo's omitted.	Area.	Persons ooo's omitted.	Area.	Persons ooo's omitted.	Area.	Persons 000's omitted.	Area.	Persons ooo's omitted.	Area.	Persons ooo's omitted.
I	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	13	16	17	18	19
Province	168,460	3,847	27,657	1,919	18,404	2,245	17,690	3,580	674	232	85	44	73	50	5	4	92	524
Burma Proper	99,737	1,992	27,657	1,919	18,404	2,245	17,690	3,580	674	232	85	44	72	50			92	  523
I. Central Basin	15,053	489	13,829	942	8,057	1,018	7,387	1,456			85	44					34	165
I. Deltaic Plains	7,825	284	7.742	538	9,467	1,128	9,079	1,857	674	232							28	293
III. Northern Hill Districts.	44,634	587	888	51	•••										<b></b>			
IV. Coast Ranges	32,225	632	5,198	388	880	99	1,224	267					72	50			30	65
V. Specially Administered Territories.	68,723	1,496	<b></b>	<b></b>			•••	·				···			5	4		•••

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE III.—Distribution of the Population between Towns and Villages.

Natural Division.	popul	erage Numb ulation per m per residin		mille population residing in				Number per mille of Rural population residing in villages with a population of				
Natural Division.	Town.	Vil- lage.	Towns.	Vil- lages.	20,000 and over.	10,000 to 20,000.	5,000 to 10,000	Under 5,000.	· 5,000 and over.	2,000 to 5,000.	500 to 2,000.	Under 500.
ī	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13 -
Province	17,904	292	93	907	586	190	204	20	10	67	534	389
Burma Proper	17,904	509	106	894	586	190	204	20	8	76	608	308
1. Central Basin	15,240	517	93	907	486	264	225	· 25	11	85	571	333
II. Deltaic Plains	20,527	649	133	867	618	152	224	. 6	9	75	699	217
III. Northern Hill Districts.	7,521	221	45	955		368	513	119	12	34	331	623
IV. Coast Ranges	23,687	490	95	9,5	848	105		47		72	584	344
V. Specially Administered Territories.	•••	79		1,000		•••	•••	•••	14	13	71	902

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE IV.—Number per mille of the total Population and of each main Religion who live in Towns.

		Numbe	r per mille v	vho live in '	Towns.	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
District and Natural Division,	Total population.	Buddhist.	Animist.	Hindu.	Mahomedan.	Christian.
t	2	3	4	5	6	7
Province	93	67	35	532	352	224
Burma Proper	103	75	76	543	354	236
I.—Central Basin	93	71	112	583	644	653
Prome	127	113	94	671	731	474
Thayetmyo	99	89	19	766	844	699
Pakokku	49	46	53	. 319	521	613
Minbu	69	65	50	210	498	673
Magwe	6:	57	729	332	576	392
Mandalay Shwebo	464	405	999	772 457	835	984 408
Shwebo Sagaing	30 35	30	874 653	457 383	346	408 186
Lower Chindwin	27	22	890	497	781	865
Kyaukse	42	37	1,000	395	60	225
Meiktila	25	16	411	309	277	808
Yamèthin	87	63.	186	589	450	320
Myingyan	50	46	973	449	482	606
II.—Deltaic Plain's	183	€0	232	<i>58</i> 7	631	189
Rangeon	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000
Hanthawaddy	46	20	93	165	226	145
Tharrawaddy	54	45	236	325	335	98
Pegu	40	30	104	106	215	28
Bassein Henzada	113	82 88	375	783 578	738 578	55 96
Myaungmya	41	33	492 201	239	183	16
Ma-ubin	89	76	286	250	382	48
Pyapôn	97	78	401	285	502	43
Thaten	49	41	41	143	194	53 46
Toungoo	76	63	38	249	526	46
III.—Northern Hill Districts	45	80	26	425	441	254
Bhamo	91	82	26	590	777	275
Myitkyina	66	38	9	476	406	231
Katha Ruby Mines						682
Upper Chindwin	110 21	93	13	563 236	434 285	197
IV.—Coast Ranges	95	65	81	577	139	288
Akyab	72	43	12	590	87	840
Northern Arakan					•••	
Kyaukpyu	18	14	2	275	216	221
Sandoway Salween	33	20	7	407	290	159
Amherst	157	87	501	635	440	448
Tavoy	185 134	176	211	615 316	734 200	149 76
V.—Specially Administered Terri- tories.	•••			•••		
Northern Shan States	•••	•••		•••	•••	•••
Southern Shan States Pakôkku Hill Tracts	•••	•••	•••	`	•••	•••
Pakokku Hill Tracts	1 ***	•••	***	***	***	•••
Chin Hills	l l	•••	1	•••	•••	

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE V .- Towns classified by Population.

	Town.		Percen-		Inc	crease pe opulatio as ele previou	r cent, h n of Tow word at s Census	n the	Increase per cent, in Urban Population of each Class from 1872 to 1911.			
Serial No.	` Class.	No. of Towns in 1911,	tage of total Urban Popu- lation.	Number of Females per 1,000 Males,	1901 to 1911,	1801 to 1901.	1881 to 1891,	1872 to 1881.	(a) In Town no classed in 1872,	(b) In the total of each class in 1911 as compared with the correspond- ing total in 1872. (Lower Hurma only.)		
1(a)	1(6)	1(c)	2	3	4	5	;6	7	8	9		
1	100,000 and over	2	38	554	3	16	176	•	•••	•••		
11	50,000—100,000	r	5	639	—ı	5	5	36	197	12		
111	20,000—50,000	6	15	648	7	-9	8	13	24	+ rč		
IV	10,000-20,000	16	19	718	3	8	17	25	46	+ 31		
v	5,000)—10,000	32	21	824	2	17	27	-3	28	<del>1</del> 88		
VI	Under 5,000	6	2	782	86	75	79		68			
						-						

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE VI.—Cities.

	;	Number	Number of	Propor- tion		Per	centage (	of Varia	lion.
City.	Population in 1911.	of Persons per square mile.	Females to 1,000 Males.	of foreign born per mille.	1901 to 1911.	1891 to 1901.	1881 to 1891,	1872 to 1881.	Total 1872 to 1911.
1	2	3	4	5	б	7	8	9	10
Rangoon	293,316	10,476	4119	<u>5</u> 83	20	35	36	36	197
Mandalay		5,532	984	93	25	-3	:4.1	· 444	<b></b>
•	1	1							

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE VII.—Persons per House and Houses per Square Mile.

District and Natu	mi Diu	icion	Averag	ge Number	of Persons	per House.		Average N per so	lumber of I Juare mile.	louses
	.u.,p.r.	131011.	1911.	1901.	1891.	1881.	1911.	1901.	1891.	1881
ı			2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Province	•••	•••	4.91	5-01	5.66		10.7	8.8	6.8	
Burma Proper	•••		4.89	5.05	5.39		13.2	10-9	8.3	
. Central Basin		•••	4:61	4.77	5.25	•••	20.1	17.4	12.1	
Prome	•••		4.41	4.89	4.85	E.13	27.6			""
Thayetmyo Pakôkku	•••	•••	4.44	4.82	2.11	5°13	11.8	25.6	25°7	22'3
Minbu	•••	•••	4.84 4.25	4.80	5.42	"	13.6	11.7	15.7	16.3
Magwe	•••		4°75 5°19	4.67	5.03	•••	16.8	15.5	13.0	
Mandalay	•••		4'42	5°39 4°73	6.27 4.86	•••	18.4	15.7	6.4	
Shwebo		•••	4.41	4.26	4.57		36°5	36.6	36.4	•••
Sagaing			4°41	4.77	5 25		38.8	31.8	11.1	
Lower Chindw Kyaŭksè		•••	4.48	4 53	5.28	•••	20.3	1/5	9°5	•••
Meiktila	•••	•	5'09	3.01	4'11	•••	21.8	28.4	29.3	•••
Yamèthin	•••	***	4°92 3°96	5.16	5'45		26.I	22.4	15.6	
Myingyan	•••		4.68	4.96 4.88	5°42 6°24	•••	30.3	23.3	4.4 12.1	•••
. Deltaic Plains	•••		5·14	5∙39	5.50	5.00	24.0	40.0		
Rangoon	•••	İ			5.52	5.66	24.2	19.9	15.3	11.6
Hanthawaddy	•••		5°06	5'99	6.36	6.49	17741	2063'6	1288.5	1036.8
Tharrawaddy	•••		4.02	5°32 5°26	5'27	5°93	34.0	30.1	26.1	17.8
Pegu	•••	•••	516	5.43	6.01 2.34	5.28	30.8	26.4	32'1	59.1
Bassein	1 - 4	•••	5'34	5.67	5.24	5'5S ,	201	16.7	12.1	10.8
Henzada Myaungmya	•••	•••	5.co	5.51	5.42	573	36.8	32.5	36.1	30,5
Ma-ubin	•••	•••	5'14	5'41	)	(	24.6	18.0	-	. 50 -
Pyapôn	•••		5.15	} 5.61	5.84	575 j	36.2 }	24.0	14'1	10,1
Thatôn	•••		5.45		J	202	23.5 \$	15,5		
Toungoo	•••		4.28	5°55 4°65	5°11   4°72	इङ्हा इष्ट	15.4	9.7	7°2 5°4	6°1 4°7
I. Northern Hill Di	stricts		4.88	4.91	5·81 :	(	2.9	2.5	1.3	
Bhamo			4.87	1	:	i	1	1	, ,	•••
Myitkyina	•••		4.96	4°59 4°86	531	•••	3.5	4'2	1,1	
Katha	•••		4.82	4 01	516		59	1,3	2.2	- 1
Ruby Mines Upper Chindwi		•••	5'13	5.17	č		3.0	3.1	1.0	.
obher ourudwi	11		4.81	4.9S	•	··· /	z.3	1.6	9	!
. Coast Ranges	··· .		5.03	5·08	<u> इन्द्र</u> हा	43 T	·5   6	-9 2	!·o   -	1
Akyab	•••		4.89	4.24		_		, ,	•	<i>इं</i>
Northern Araka	n		4.08	272	TT: 43	31 5.		9 14	·9   re:	Ť
Kyaukpyu Sandoway	•••		4'43			. 0.		.9 3	·S	
Salween	•••	•••	519	स्याः इत्यः	<del>5=</del> 53	5	بى د¦ ⊆		o 27 8 55	
Amherst	•••	•••	433			: 41	3.			
Tavoy	•••		571 48:	3	2. 22: 3. 25:	<b>,</b> , , ,	7	```.		
Mergui	••.				<u> </u>	5.1 2.5		3 -7	Own III.	
Specially Adn Territories.	niniste,	rec	दुरा ४	,	***	4-5	ಪಕ	بضيمه	· .	
						, 0	¥i v		•	
Northern Shan S	1=+=-			_			\$13.35 G			

#### CHAPTER II.

### Movement of Population.

46. Statistical References.—The term "Movement of the Population" at the head of this chapter is not used in its literal sense of migration. aspect will be considered subsequently, in Chapter III, in which the statistics of birthplace will be utilised to indicate the extent of migration from place to place. The present chapter will be devoted to movements with respect to time, or to variations in the population from time to time, rather than to physical movements from place to place. In the first chapter the distribution of the population as it stood at the time the census was taken was considered. The variations that have taken place since the first census in 1872 and more particularly the variations since the last census in 1901 are now to be the subject of treatment. From an administrative point of view this chapter is the most important in the report. of population from time to time not only allow the effect of past administration on the people to be estimated, but are of the greatest utility in suggesting the degree of correspondence between existing administration and the ever varying population A list of the statistical materials essential for a complete study under its control. of the variations would be lengthy, including the majority of the tables of the current and the four preceding enumerations. Imperial Tables II and IV and Provincial Table I in the statistical volume of this report and the five subsidiary tables specially prepared to illustrate different aspects of the variation of the population, however, afford the principal material to be utilised. The five tables show respectively:-

Subsidiary Table I.—Variation in relation to density since 1872.

Subsidiary Table II.—Variation in natural population.

Subsidiary Table III.—Comparison with vital statistics.

Subsidiary Table IV(a).—Variation by townships classified according to density. Actual variation.

Subsidiary Table IV(b).—Variation by townships classified according to density. Proportional variation.

### VARIATION PRIOR TO 1901.

47. Population of Burma prior to the Census Era.—But little reliance can be placed on the estimates of the population of Burma prior to the cession of Arakan and Tenasserim in 1826. Father Sangermano at the end of the eighteenth century estimated the population of the Burmese empire at about two millions. Colonel Symes at about the same time thought that it amounted to seventeen millions, and Cox a little later estimated it at about eight millions. It was impossible at that time to make even an approximate guess at the population of a recently extended and loosely amalgamated empire, seething with rebellion and subject to almost continuous warfare. What is certain is that the populations of Arakan, Tenasserim and Pegu were at one time much greater than when they came under British control by two successive annexations in 1826 and 1852. The descriptions of the visits of early European travellers show that the coasts of Arakan and Tenasserim were exceedingly populous, but when they were ceded to the British after the first Anglo-Burmese war they were found to be almost In 1829, a census taken in Arakan showed that the population was see years later, in 1832, it has risen to 195,107. This remarkable depopulated. 121,288. Three years later, in 1832, it has risen to 195,107. This remarkable increase of 60.86 per cent. was principally due to the return from Chittagong of the Arakanese, who had fled from Arakan during the occupation of that kingdom by the Burmese from 1784 to 1826. Similarly along the sea-coast of Tenasserim there were numbers of ruined towns laid waste during the wars between the Burmese and the Talaings, and subsequently between the Burmese and the Shamese. So poor and so sparsely populated was Tenasserim on its first occupation by the British, that the question of restoring it to the king of Burma was

seriously debated. The area corresponding roughly with that of the three districts of Amherst, Tavoy and Mergui was then found to contain only 70,000 inhabitants. The history of Burmese warfare is full of incidents which indicate that it was carried almost to the point of extermination. It is related that about the end of the sixteenth century, one of the Talaing kings on a single occasion burnt 10,000 people to death, and it is not surprising that at the end of his reign the country was depopulated. But the wars waged from the time of the rise of Alaungpaya in 1754 till the British invasion of 1824 were responsible for the depopulation existing at the latter date. From Manipur and Mogaung in the north, to Mergui and Siam in the south, from the Shan States in the east to Arakan in the west, warfare was incessant for this period of about seventy years. Depopulation was caused not only by the numbers killed in actual warfare, though prisoners and conquered garrisons were invariably put to the sword. In retaliation for defeats in warfare whole tracts of country were devastated, neither age nor sex being spared. Large populations were either compulsorily transferred to some remote region in the conqueror's territory, or driven to take refuge in other countries. With the energies of the country so dissipated by warfare, and with no possibility of peace and security, there could be neither industry nor agriculture sufficiently extensive to support a growing population. It is probable that had the Burmese been granted sufficient time to consolidate their conquests, an era of expanding population would have commenced. The British appeared at the moment of greatest exhaustion produced by the extension of the Burmese Empire. Under the conditions of warfare prevailing, depopulation was a preliminary essential to terri-The expansion having been effected, if it had been confined to torial expansion. the natural frontiers of the province, the era of internal warfare would probably have been succeeded by an era of peace and internal development. It is a legitimate assumption that the population of Burma was at a lower level during the first half of Year. Arakan. Tenasserim. Pegu.

the nineteenth century than it had been for

centuries previously.

The marginal statement shows movement of population from 1826, the year of the annexation of Arakan and Tenasserim, to 1852 when Pegu was added to British territory, and on to 1862 when the three territories were formed into the province of British Burma. The population of Arakan and Tenasserim, consider-

	70,000	-
	7 - 7	•••
121,288		
246.766	84,917	•••
•••	127,455	
352,340	191,470	631,640
381.085	301.264	890,974 1,244,385
	195,107 246,766  352,348  381,985	246,766 127,455 352,348 191,476

ably less than 200,000 when taken over by the British, had risen to about 540,000 In that year the addition of Martaban and Shwegyin to Tenasserim and

the annexation of the province of Pegu brought the total up to nearly 1,200,000. In 1862 it had risen to 2,020,634. This advance was due very largely to the introduction of peace and settled government into Pegu, where previously warfare and repression had reigned, and to the return of exiles back to their homes in the settled area; but improved methods of enumeration must have also been responsible for a portion of such a remarkable increase. In 1863 the population of the now unified province was 2,092,331. A

Brītish Burma.		
Year.	Population.	
1862 1863 1872	2,020,634 2,092,331 2,747,148	

period of almost uniform expansion brought it to a total of 2,747,148 in 1872 when the first census was taken.

48. Difficulties in Estimating True Variations in Population since 1872.—The real increase in the population may be obscured by variations due to the inclusion of fresh areas and to improvements in the machinery of enumeration. It is possible to gauge the extent of the first of these disturbing influences accurately, but the second can be only estimated from a knowledge of the conditions under which the various enumerations were taken and the inherent probability or improbability of the resultant figures. In Burma there has been a progressive extension of census limits since 1881, rendering a determination of the increases due to this cause imperative before the true increases of the population can be ascertained. In 1872 and in 1881 the census area coincided with the province of British Burma. In 1891 it was extended to the greater portion of Upper Burma, but the Specially Administered Territories, and portions of the Upper Chindwin, Katha, Myitkyina, Bhamo and the Ruby Mines Districts, were

portion of the Shan States over which a modified enumeration was effected has been excluded. The horizontal rows of the statement show the populations at each census year for any particular census area; the vertical columns show the populations for any particular year in the various census areas. Horizontal differences will show the actual increases over the separate census areas with the disturbing element of increased area eliminated. Vertical differences for the year of transition will give the increase due to the extended area. By this method the influence of the extensions of census limits or the population can be isolated and excluded.

Considering first the increases due to such additional areas, it is seen that the

population of that portion of Upper Burma which was first brought under census enumeration in 1891 amounted to 3,063,426. In 1901 the extension of census limits in the Northern Hills Districts

Increase due to extensions of Census limits. and the inclusion of the greater portion of the Specially Administered Territories added 1,371,890 persons to the total population. The minor extensions in the Pakôkku Hill Tracts, Kokang and West Manglun made at the census of 1911 have caused an increase of 53,289 only. Excluding these increases the marginal statement gives the variations due to all other causes over the three census

Increase due to extensions of Census limits.		
Year.	Population of extended area.	
1891 1911	3,063,426 1,371,890 53,289	

areas of 1872-1881, 1891 and 1901. Roughly speaking the three census areas can be termed British Burma (that of 1872-1881); Burma Proper, less excluded

areas (that of 1891); and the Whole Province, less excluded areas (that of 1901). These areas have no reference to the life of the province as a whole at the present time. They were the limits over which a census enumeration was possible for the various years in which it was Yet, unmeaning as they

Actual increas		ent Census are ension of area		hose due to
Census area	1901-1911.	1891-1901.	1881-1891.	1872-1881.
19 I 1891 1872-1881	1,571,304 1,299,797 815,014	 1,396,681 987,046	 921,856	 989,623

have now become, they afford the only means of calculating the variation of the population and of isolating the disturbing influence of additional areas on such variation. Moreover, it is only by an examination of the figures for these areas, now artificial and divorced from the administrative and natural divisions of the province, yet important as being identical areas throughout the series of census enumerations which have been effected, that the magnitude of the other disturbing factor of progressive efficiency of enumeration can be estimated.

49. Variation in Population since 1872.—To obtain a review of the population since the first census was taken in 1872 it is necessary to consider only the area played a most important part in its development. As will be subsequently ascertained there are errors of under-enumeration for the whole province for the years 1891 and 1901 which from the rough tests which can be applied amount to about 2.8 and 1 per cent. respectively. The former was in a great measure due to the extension of census enumeration to the recently annexed and barely pacified area of Upper Burma. It is legitimate to presume that the percentage of error for British Burma in 1881 was not greater than this. In 1872 the degree of under-enumeration was probably much greater.

50. Variation in Population since 1891.—The variation in the population since 1872 can be studied for a limited portion of the province only. But from 1891 it

	Pepulation of Cer	१९४८ सम्बद्ध १९७१.	•
Year.	Porulation.	Increase.	
,	e og antender	Actual.	Per cent.
1891	7,722,053	!	•••
19:4	9,118,734	1,395,681	120
19:1	10,418,531	1,299.797	14'2
18	3)1—1911	2,695,478	34'9

is possible to consider its variation over an area nearly coincident with Burma proper. With the exception of the remote and hilly portions of the Northern Hill Districts the census area of 1891 was extended to the whole of Upper Burma. It has been a matter of some difficulty to obtain the populations for 1901 and 1911 for this area, owing to numerous administrative changes since the census of 1891 was taken. Moreover in 1901 the word "excluded" was used to denote not only those areas entirely excluded from the operations, but also areas excluded from regular

operations but where an estimate of the population was effected and the figures included in the census statistics. The first marginal statement has been prepared to

'rat.	Perulation.	Increase-	
	. N. S.	Actual.	Per cent.
18)1	7,39 (/63		•••
toor (	8,687,403	1,297,428	17.5
igir i	9.747.433	1,259.942	14'5

show the populations for 1901 and 1911 over every portion of Burma proper for which statistics were recorded in 1891. As there is a possibility of error due to the uncertainty of the boundaries of this area a companion statement prepared for Burma proper, excluding the doubtful Northern Hill Districts, has been prepared. The latter statement though not so comprehensive is much more accurate. In his memorandum on the Age Tables and Rules of Mortality of the Indian Census of 1901 Mr. Hardy, F.I.A., F.S.S., found the Northern Hill Districts most distur-

bing factors in his calculations. He reports to the following effect:

accurate results might have been obtained for the lesser area. Even including immigrants the increase for these districts was 17.5 per cent. only, against 19.4 per cent. for Buddhists when the Northern Hill Districts were included. Mr. Hardy accepts the figures of the 1891 census for the Buddhists in the remaining districts of Burma as being sufficiently reliable to base a natural increase of population of about 12 per mille per annum or 12 7 per cent. for the decade. This rate of increase

is confirmed by an examination of the difference in the populations of 1901 and 1911. It is possible from this figure to test the reliability of the percentage of increase of 17.5 shown by the census figures. The net gain by immigration for the decade as calculated from the birthplace statistics was 149,245 or approximately 2 per cent. of the population. The loss by emigration was imperceptible. Assuming that the net gain from migration amounted to 2 per cent. then the two factors of natural increase and migration accounted for 12.7 + 2 = 14.7 per cent. There remains a percentage of 17.5—14.7 or of the increase. 2.8 per cent. which can only be accounted for by the increased efficiency of the enumeration in 1901. The enumeration in Upper Burma in 1891 was effected under great difficulties very shortly after that

Net gain by immigration 1891-1901.		
Year.	Immigrants.	
1901	475,484 326,239	
Increase	149,245	

portion of the province had been annexed, and immediately after complete pacification had been effected. The subordinate officials had not yet grown accustomed to the methods of the new regimé, and it is probable that a large portion of the underenumeration indicated was due to so large an extension of census limits over an area where both the population and the supervising and enumerating staff possessed no previous experience of the methods and objects of the census enumeration.

### PROVINCIAL VARIATION, 1901-1911.

51. Conditions of Decade, 1901-1911.—Before commencing a detailed examination of the statistics concerning the increase of the population of the last decade a brief review of the conditions likely to influence the growth of population which have prevailed in the province is necessary. In an agricultural country the most important factors are the general climatic conditions and their influence on the crops, the price of the resultant produce, and the amount of waste land available for cultivation, or made available for cultivation by means of irrigation or improvements to communications. In Burma climatic conditions are of less importance than in India generally. The pressure of population on the means of subsistence is so slight, and the extent of culturable area available is so great, that cultivation has not spread into tracts where a slight diminution in the rainfall means scarcity, or even A perusal of the season and crop reports suggests that floods, or excess of water, are as frequent a cause of crop failure as the opposite extreme of scarcity of water. Generally speaking climatic conditions were favourable. In the ten years of the decade there were only two years, 1902 and 1905, in which the crops in Lower Burma were reported as being markedly below normal. In Upper Burma the crops for the year 1901, 1902 and 1907 can also be classified as much below normal. But the effects of such years cannot be compared with the effects which such shortages would have in the more densely populated Indian provinces. A small portion of the total crop in such years would, if necessary, be deflected from the normal export from the province to the areas of shortage. It is extremely doubtful whether any appreciable effect on the increase in the population resulted from the The scarcity in Upper Burma in 1907 partial failure of crops in the years mentioned. affords the best means of ascertaining what effect, if any, is produced on the population of Burma in years of scarcity. It is described as being the worst season since In Upper Furma the rains were poor and untimely; the rise of the Irrawaddy and Chindwin rivers was abnormally small, and irrigation works gave short supplies of water in many cases. The agricultural season throughout the dry zone, except in Magwe, was a wretched one, in some districts worse even than in 1896. The area on which crops failed to mature was nearly double that of 1906, and where unirrigated crops did mature the outturns were generally poor. Yet the demands for food supplies from the areas affected was met almost wholly from the irrigated areas in their vicinity, supplies from Lower Burma not being required to supply the deficiency. As to the effect of the scarcity on the health of the population, the Sanitary Commissioner of the province records that a certain amount of scarcity was reported at the end of 1907 in Sagaing, Myingyan, Meiktila and the northern subdivision of

Yamethin District and that some movement of the populations of these districts towards Lower Burma and the irrigated area in the Kyaukse District was observed; but that no excessive sickness or mortality appears to have resulted from the scarcity. Returning to the same subject in the Sanitary Report for the year 1908 he records that the scarcity reported at the end of 1907 in the Meiktila and Sagaing Divisions of Upper Burma was of no long duration and produced no serious degree of sickness or mortality nor decrease in the birth-rate among the population. An examination of the vital statistics of the districts affected fails to indicate that any portion of the mortality recorded in 1907 and 1908 was due to any shortage in the food supply. It can be generally concluded from this consideration of the most serious scarcity in the decade, that adverse changes in climatic conditions do not have an appreciable effect on the increase of the sparsely distributed population of the province. They may affect the general distribution, increasing the population of one district at the expense of another, by migration. But on the population as a whole, they do not fall with such oppressive severity that they actively influence the birth or death rates of the localities in which they occur.

Of far greater influence than the variation from year to year in the climatic conditions of the province is the amount of culturable area available for extensions of cultivation. The occupied portion of Burma proper has increased from 13,868,497 acres in 1901 to 17,169,806 acres in 1911, or nearly 25 per cent. It has expanded at a greater rate than the population it supports. According to the Season and Crop Report of Burma for 1911 there still remains an area of 23,833,000 acres of culturable waste a considerably greater area than that already occupied, available for future expansion. This figure rather over-estimates future possibilities. The Northern Arakan District shows 2,881,570 acres of culturable waste, but it is highly probable that this area is largely in excess of the true figures, and that similar though not such extensive over-estimation exists in other districts. The term culturable is an elastic one and liable to different interpretations. Much of the area included is only culturable at the cost of expensive irrigation or embanking schemes. But making all necessary deductions, there remain areas available for future development and for the maintenance of increased populations, in excess of the area already taken up. Such areas are generally either remote from existing means of communication or require a large amount of labour to bring them under cultivation. Most of the accessable areas, and those culturable with but a moderate amount of preliminary preparation, have already been occupied; and those that remain will require a progressively increasing amount of preparation, either on a large scale in the provision of means of access, irrigation or embankments, or on the small scale of the more arduous cultivation of individual holdings.

following year it dropped to 65,349 acres and a report was made to the effect that the figures previously given were unreliable. In the early part of the decade the irrigation systems of Burma were almost entirely dependent on the rainfall. Season and Crop Report of Burma for 1902 the extent to which they were dependent on rain, and not on snow, was emphasised, and it was pointed out that if the rains were short or untimely on the hills as well as in the plains, irrigation could not supply the place of a good rainfall. It was also stated that both the quality and the quantity of irrigation was in many districts purely a matter of conjecture. Despite the small apparent increase in the figures, substantial advances have been made. The areas given for the earlier years are highly conjectural, those for the later years contain only those areas where the irrigation was fully adequate to support the crop to In the Season and Crop Report for 1911 it is stated that in a year of good rainfall an area of 1,426,236 acres would be irrigated. So far as it affected the variation of the population, the increase of irrigation, or rather its gradual transformation from local and detached systems into large connected schemes, is concerned with the natural division of the province termed the Central Basin. When the variation in the population of this area is being discussed the influence of irrigation on the increases recorded will be estimated.

The general industrial progress of the country is almost inseparably bound up with its agricultural development. Most of its industries are concerned with the disposal of its agricultural produce. Of the independent industries, the oil-fields and oil refineries have had considerable effect on the population of the Magwe and the Hanthawaddy Districts. Developments in other districts are too small or too recent to have had produced any appreciable effect. The same may be said about the rubber and mining industries. At the time the census was taken, they were in a state of great activity, but they were still in a rudimentary stage and their effect on the population had not begun to reveal itself. There is a general feeling prevalent that the general industrial progress of the province has not been so great as the opportunities it afforded have permitted. Much capital urgently needed for expansion in legitimate directions has been either dissipated in speculative commercial enterprises, or locked up in speculative purchases of land. It is probable that every country in a stage of rapid transition must necessarily pass through such an era of fictitious enterprise. The past ten years has proved such an era for Burma. Amid much substantial industrial progress, there is to be recorded a high proportion of enterprises whose main result has been to retard rather than advance the industrial interests of the province. The effect on the population has been felt in its influence on the number of immigrants, slackening the rate of increase from this constituent of the total resultant. Its effect on the indigenous population has been scarcely felt.

52. General Comparison of Population for 1901 and 1911.—Apart from the extension in the census limits, the most important elements of disturbance

in the comparison of the census figures for 1901 and 1911 are the areas in which the population was estimated in 1901 and enumerated in 1911. There were seven such areas, two of them, in the Upper Chindwin and the Bhamo Districts, being due to the breakdown of the arrangements for enumeration in 1901, at the last moment. The total population for these areas shows an increase of 89,211 or 42 per cent., a very large proportion of which must be due to the greater accuracy of the enumeration over the estimate previously made. There is no means of ascertaining the exact amount of error and any correction made would be of a mechanical nature. If a comparison of any value is to be made between

Population of the areas whi	ich were estim	aled in 1901.
	1911.	1901.
Karenni Kachin Districts.	63,628 75,421	45,795 45,127
North Hsenwi. Pakôkku Hill Tracts Chin Hills	17,128	13,116
Upper Chindwin Bhamo	223	188
Myitkyina	23,319	19,264
Total	301,390	212,179

the population of the province for the years 1901 and 1911 it is necessary that any of these areas of sufficient magnitude to disturb the percentage of increase must be excluded. The figures for the Upper Chindwin and Bhamo districts are too insignificant to have any appreciable weight. The effect of the disturbance of Myitkyina District is greater, but it is not of sufficient magnitude to justify the exclusion of a portion of one of the regular districts of the province. Combining together those areas to be excluded because they have appeared for the first time in the census of 1911, and those to be excluded because of the difference

in the system of enumerations adopted in 1901 and 1911, they can be classified as follows:—

Territory.	Areas excluded from	Population.	
	comparison.	1911.	1901.
Northern Shan States { Southern Shan States Pakôkku Hill Tracts { Chin Hills	Kokang West Manglün Kachin Districts of North Hsenwi. Karenni Administered Unadministered The whole	25,604 18,562 75,421 63,628 17,128 9,123	 45,127 45,795 13,116  87,189
	Total	329,022	191,227

If these figures be excluded from the total population of the province as given by the enumerations of 1901 and 1911, the amount of variation is 1,486,798 or

Population with incomparable areas excluded.			
Year.		Population.	
1911	•••	10,299,397 11 <b>,</b> 786,195	
Increase	•••	1,486,798	
Per cent.	• • •	14.43	

14'4 per cent. This is as true a presentation as the census records will permit after all known disturbing influences have been excluded. There still remains an analysis of this increase to determine to what extent it is due to the natural increase of births over deaths, and how far it is due to the effect of migration. The following methods are available for estimating the respective portions of this increase of 1,486,798 due to the natural increase of births over deaths and to the gain by migration:—

(i) the statistics of births and deaths recorded for the province;

(ii) the statistics for the Buddhist population, which, being free to a great extent from the disturbing factor of migration beyond the limits of the province, may be expected to give an increase closely approximating to the natural increase of births over deaths;

(iii) Mr. Hardy's estimate of a natural increase of 12 per mille per annum;

(iv) the statistics for birthplace given in Imperial Table XI from which an estimate of the extent of migration can be compiled.

53. Vital Statistics.—The most obvious method of obtaining reliable figures for the natural increase of the population by the excess of births over deaths is an examination of the actual records of births and deaths for the province. But a difficulty at once presents itself. The record of deaths was not extended to the rural areas of Upper Burma till 1901 and the record of births till 1907. Consequently there exists no complete record of births and deaths for this portion of the province for the decade. Even this late extension does not extend to the whole of Upper Burma, and on the date of the ceusus the Salween and the Northern Arakan Districts and the five Northern Hill Districts were still without any records of births and deaths. Any examination of the vital statistics must therefore be partial and can refer to only a portion of the province.

The duty of recording the occurrence of births and deaths is imposed on village headmen in rural areas and ward headmen in towns. Each recording officer is supplied with blank books prepared for entries in counterfoil. At regular intervals, varying from three days to a month according to general police requirements, the counterfoils are collected by the police beat patrol, which regularly visits every village and hamlet in each police station jurisdiction. The book of foils remains with the village headman and enables inspecting officers to test the accuracy of the entries. Government vaccinators are the principal testing agency, but superior executive officers are supposed to check the records in every village visited. When the counterfoils have been collected they are taken to the police station and sent with a return month by month to the Civil Surgeon, who in turn prepares a return for the whole district from the returns of the various police stations.

district from the returns of the various police stations.

Both Mr. Eales and Mr. Lowis in the Census Reports of 1891 and 1901, commended adversely on the accuracy of the statistics compiled by this agency. In the ten years that have elapsed since the Census for 1901, it was hoped that a

great improvement would have been effected. But a perusal of the reports of the department actually concerned in their preparation shows that but little reliance can be placed on them. In the Report on the Sanitary Administration of Burma for the year 1901, dated 14th May 1910, less than a year before the actual enumeration was made, the Sanitary Commissioner for the province makes the following remarks on the reliability of the vital statistics:—

"As to the general inaccuracy of the returns of births and deaths in the rural areas and towns of Burma there is a little doubt in the minds of those who have enquired into the The argument that among the very large numbers of occurrences registered the subject. The argument that among the very large numbers of occurrences registered the omissions will to some extent counteract the exaggerations cannot be admitted to apply to the statistics of relatively small populations. The fact that the infantile death-rate for so large an area as Upper Burma is excessively high, and that therefore the estimated natural increase of the population is extremely low is of serious moment if the returns are to be depended upon as possessing any approach to accuracy. In the area under registration the percentage increase for the year on a census population of 8,543,753 was o 57. The natural increase for Lower Burma was 42,110 lives, equal to 0.76 per cent. of population, and for Upper Burma only 6,835 lives, equal to 0.23 per cent. The natural increase for the whole of British India including Lower Burma for the year 1006 was 0.20 per cent, while that for of British India including Lower Burma for the year 1906 was 0.29 per cent. while that for Lower Burma in the same year was 0'52 per cent, which, while being much above the average for British India, was below the ratio for the year now under review. There has been some increase in the population since 1905 so that the actual increase is less than that given, which is estimated on the census population of 1901. This marked discrepancy between the ratios for natural increase of the Lower and Upper Burma populations throws serious doubts upon the even approximate correctness of the registration returns as a whole. The much higher infantile mortality in Upper Burma than in Lower Burma confirms this suspicion. The registration of births in rural areas in Upper Burma has only been in force since January 1907, and it is to be expected that the return of births will be less accurate in that area than in the districts of Lower Burma where the system has been in force for many years. On the other hand, the number of births recorded in Upper Burma is, proportionally to population, larger than in Lower Burma, and there is also evidence that the returns of births in rural areas of Lower Burma are anything but accurate. The problem bristles with contradictions, and at the same time affords no data for arriving at a correct solution. Under these circumstances any exhaustive analysis of the returns of infantile mortality must prove unfruitful. But the uncertainty which undoubtedly exists as to the accuracy of the returns provides very strong reasons for instituting careful enquiries for their verification in places where special need for such investigation exists, and the result of such an enquiry should afford indications for improving the conduct of the registering agency there and elsewhere or, should the returns under suspicion prove to be reliable, some explanation of the high mortality should be forthcoming which will afford suggestions for counteracting the morbific agencies responsible for it.'

In the Resolution by the Local Government on the same report it is stated that the want of accuracy must be regarded as inevitable, if it is remembered that the registration is, except in towns, carried out by the village headmen, who are often barely literate and whose duties daily become more multifarious. In the following year, a year which extended to within two months and ten days of the date of the census, in the city of Mandalay where a high degree of accuracy was to be expected, the registrars discovered 1,150 unregistered births out of a total of 5,611. If over 20 per cent. of the births remain unrecorded in Mandalay, where more efficient registration is possible, but little reliance can be placed on returns from rural areas. In the same report it is explicitly stated that in urban areas registration is more effectively controlled than in rural areas, and that more accurate reports may be expected from the former. It is therefore probable that the degree of inaccuracy considerably exceeds the 20 per cent, detected in one specific city area. One cause of the large degree of inaccuracy of the record is due to the system of inspection by government vaccinators. In many districts there is a strong objection to vaccination, the older method of prevention of small-pox by inoculation being preferred. In such districts the knowledge that the government vaccinator is an official inspector of vital statistics leads to the omission to report the occurrence of births on a large scale. Apart from omissions to report and omissions to record, there is a liability to error in the collection and preparation of the returns. In 1910, collecting agencies were prosecuted on 21 occasions for failure in the collection of counterfoils, falsification of registers and neglect of partrol duty, and suitable punishments were awarded.

It is probable that the omissions to record births are much greater than the omissions to record deaths. As Mr. Eales stated in his report, there are so many people who must know about every death that occurs. A funeral is a social function involving the maximum of publicity whereas there is no public ceremony closely connected with the birth or first years of the life of a child. There is therefore a much greater possibility of a birth than a death being omitted. It is with respect to the births rather than with respect to deaths that the complaints

as to errors and omissions are most frequent. It is necessary to allow for these errors in considering the percentages shown in the marginal statement. Those for

Vital Statistics.			
	Percentage of population of 1901.		
Area.	Births.	Deaths.	Natural increase.
Central Basin (2 districts only). Deltaic Plains Deltaic Plains (Rangoon excluded). Coast Ranges (6 districts only).	36'10 32'86 33'83 32'67	27.62 25.46 24.40 22.09	8'48 7'40 9'43 10'58
Province Province (Rangoon ex- cluded).	33°17 33°82	24'95 24'23	8'22 9'59

births and for natural increase are less than they would be if more accurate records could be compiled. The percentage of increase for the decade, 8'22 (or 9'59 if Rangoon be excluded) understates the true rate of The effect of natural increase. the figures for Rangoon town on the statistics for the province is remarkable. A large masculine immigration has resulted in a set of conditions tending towards an abnormally high death rate and an abnormally low birth The potency of the contrary tendencies of the rate of

increase in Rangoon and the remainder of the province is demonstrated if a comparison is made of the rates obtained when it is included and excluded from the calculation. Its exclusion from the districts comprising the Deltaic Plains serves to raise the rate of increase from 7.40 to 9.43, while its exclusion from the provincial totals raises the rate of increase from 8.22 to 9.59.

The principal epidemics affecting the increase in the population for the decade

(i) an epidemic of cholera in 1903, and a series of epidemics of the same

disease from 1905 to 1909;
(ii) an epidemic of small-pox in the years 1905 and 1906;

(iii) the appearance of plague in Burma in 1905.

The actual mortality from all these cases is given in Subsidiary Table X of Chapter V. The extra mortality due to the epidemics mentioned after deducting

Mortality from	n epido 1911).	emics (1901-
Cholera Small-pox Plague		38,130 10,701 43,017
Total		91,848

the normal mortality found to prevail in ordinary years is 91,848. Allowing for the fact that the record of deaths is not extended to the Northern Hill Districts, the Specially Administered Territories and the Northern Arakan and the Salween Districts, this extra mortality was responsible for a death rate of approximately one per cent. of the population.

54. Natural Increase of Buddhist Population.—The second method of estimating the natural increase of population for the province, a method which

Buddhist population.			
Population of	1911.	,1901.	
Province	10,384,579	9,184,121	
Areas excluded from comparison.	42,095	•••	
Areas available for cumparison.	10,342,484	9,184,121	
Increase	1,158,363		
Per cent	12.01		

promises more accurate results than a consideration of the vital statistics, is a consideration of the increase of the Buddhist population for the province as a whole. the method employed by Mr. Hardy in his comparison of the statistics for 1891 and 1901. It did not then achieve accurate results because the populations compared were not for identical areas for the two enumera-The Buddhist population is but slightly affected by migration either by sea or over-Practically no Buddhists are included among the immigrants by sea, the immigrant races being principally Hindu, Mahomedan, Animist and Christian. Animists preponder ate in the immigrants arriving by land, and though there is a tendency for the Animist Buddhism, the immigrants to embrace

numbers would not be so great as to largely affect the figures of the comparison. The emigration of Buddhists from the province is also insignificant. There is a large internal migration of Buddhists, but this does not affect the figures for the province as a whole. It is of course necessary to exclude from the comparison the areas

been influenced by many extraneous factors. The abnormal increases of 36, 25 and 21 mentioned in paragraph 49 (in so far as they are true increases) have operated on them in widely varying degrees. The most probable conclusion to be drawn from the comparison is that the general average size of the population from which the generation of 1911 was born was 19 per cent. greater than the general average size of the population from which the generation of 1901 was born. The natural population is a measure of the past population of an area, whether indigenous or immigrant, and any comparison between the natural populations of two periods must contain the disturbing element of previous migrations. The increase of 19 per cent. for the populations of the Coast Ranges and the Deltaic Plains while that of the Central Basin has increased by 10 per cent. only, indicates in the former cases that past immigration has assisted the rate of increase, and in the latter case, that past emigration has had a retarding effect. They cannot be regarded as assisting in any way to a determination of the natural rate of increase.

In considering the variation in the natural population for the province as a whole it is necessary to reduce the figures given in Subsidiary Table II in order to

Variation in Natural population.		
Year.	Population.	
1901	9,812,416 11,233,764	
Increase	1,421,348	
Per cent	14.2	

get a comparison over identical areas. The necessary deductions from the actual populations for 1901 and 1911 are given in the first marginal statement to paragraph 52. To obtain the natural populations for these areas it would be necessary to use corrected figures for the immigrants and emigrants adjusted to these reduced areas. Such figures would be impossible to obtain, as no statistics for birthplace were taken for the majority of the areas now excluded from the comparison. Even if they were obtainable their effect on the figures would be inappreciable. It will make no appreciable difference if the deductions of

paragraph 52 for the excluded areas are made direct from the natural populations as given in Subsidiary Table II. There is a resultant increase of 1,421,348 or 14'5 per cent. This is however no indication of the natural increase of population. As previously shown, the figures for the natural populations at the two periods are affected in varying degrees by previous immigration into the province. Although actual immigrants are excluded from the figures, such children and descendants of immigrants as are born in the province are included. In Burma with such a large immigration from year to year, the number of children and descendants of immigrants would be relatively greater at the later period, and would cause an enhancement in the rate of increase of the natural population over the natural rate of increase.

56. Comparison of Actual Population of 1901 with Natural Population of 1911.—The fact that though immigration into Burma is of considerable

••	Population.		
Year.	Class.	Numbers.	
1911 {	Actual Immigrants	11,786,195 590,965	
1901	Natural Actual	11,195,23ō 10,299,397	
1901-11	Increase	895,833	
	Per cent	8.4	

dimensions, the emigration of the indigenous population is barely appreciable, suggests another method of estimating the natural rate of increase of the population. Ignoring such emigration as being too insignificant to affect the resulting percentage, the actual population of 1901 can be compared with the population shown as being born in the province in 1911. This comparison is practically between the actual population of 1901 and the natural population of 1911. There is one factor however which vitiates this method. Although the number of emigrants calculated

Table V of Chapter III is insignificant, there exists as will be seen in the succeeding chapter of this report, a large seasonal emigration which cannot be detected by these tables. A very large proportion of the 475,489 immigrants recorded in the census tables for 1901 were temporary immigrants only. Such temporary immigrants would have little or no effect on the natural increase of the population. It may be said that their places would be taken by others, and that though the individuals themselves might be temporary sojourners in the province, yet their manufers as a whole were constant or increasing, and would have practically the same effect as if they comprised the same individuals year after year. But even allowing for the constancy or increase in their numbers, while the actual individuals change

from year to year, there are the factors of the absence such temporary immigrants during off seasons, the large preponderance of males in their numbers, and the impossibility of family life, which operate to prevent their contributing to the increase in the population proportionately to their numbers. The low percentage of increase of 8.7 for the decade must be attributed to the inclusion in the figures for 1901 of the immigrant population of nearly half a million persons, a very large proportion of whom were temporary immigrants divorced entirely from the general life of the province, and living in such conditions that they exercised a negative rather than a positive effect on the increase in the population. The effect of the inclusion of this class of persons on the natural rate of increase can be seen in the figures illustrating paragraphs 53 and 57 of this chapter.

57. General Conclusions as to Natural Rate of Increase.—The marginal statement has been prepared to summarise in a form handy for reference

all the materials available for estimating the natural rate of increase of the population for the decade 1901-11. The areas over which the rates of increase have been calculated differ for each item included in the statement, but the greatest care has been taken that for each item the calculation should be made for an identical area for the two periods compared. The first item gives the corrected rate increase of all sections of the population, immigrants included, as obtained in paragraph 52 above. The second is deduced from

	Rate of increase 1901-11.		
No.	Section of Population.	Increase per cent.	
1	All Sections	14.13	
2	Buddhists (1891-1901)	12.65	
3	Buddhists (1901-1911)	12.61	
4	Natural population '	17.78	
5	· Actual (1901), Natural (1911)	8.70	
Ö	2 Districts (Rangoon included)	8.33	
7	20 Districts (Rangoon excluded)	9'59	
. 3	Deltaic Plains (Rangoon included)	7:40	
IJ	Deltaic Plains (Rangoon excluded)	9'43	
10	6 Districts (Coast Ranges)	10'58	
11	Rangoon (natural decrease)	33,80	

Mr. Hardy's estimate of a rate of increase of 12 per mille per annum after an examination of the census statistics for 1891 and 1901. The third, fourth and fifth have been deduced from a comparison of the census statistics for 1901 and 1911. six have been obtained from the vital statistics as recorded in twenty-one districts of the province. The most reliable test of all is the third item. It has been calculated on a widely-spread indigenous and practically homogeneous population, comprising 85.72 per cent. of the total inhabitants of the province, not appreciably affected by external migration, and living in natural conditions in their own country. percentage may be slightly enhanced above the true rate of increase by the gradual acceptance of Buddhism by the animistic tribes on the borders of the province. This disturbance would be extremely slight, as most of the areas where such tribes dwell have been excluded from the comparison in order to ensure that it should be effected over identical areas. It has been seen that the percentage of the fourth item is above and that of the fifth item is below the true natural increase. It is also certain that the percentages of the items deduced from the vital statistical records are below the real rates of increase. It is also demonstrated that the rate of increase of the immigrant races is much below that of the indigenous population, and that the difference is sufficiently marked and sufficiently extensive to influence the rate for the province as a whole. All these indications seem to converge to the conclusion that the natural rate of increase for the Buddhist population is very closely approximate to that of 12 per mille per annum or 12.65 per decade which was assumed by Mr. Hardy as a result of his examination of the census statistics for 1891 and 1901. This figure is perhaps a trifle greater than the true rate of increase which would fall most probably between 12 and 12.5 per cent. for the decade. A reduction, approximately one-half per cent., would be necessary if the natural rate of increase of the total population rather than that of the Buddhist population

were required. The most probable figure for the variation of all classes of the population between 1891 and 1901, from natural increase only, would be about 12 per cent.

It remains to be considered to what extent the increase of 14.43 per cent. is to be attributed to its constituents of natural increase and immigration, and what portion is due to increased efficiency of enumeration. Ignoring the emigration of persons born in Burma as being too insignificant to affect the percentage, the net gain to the province

Year.	Immigrants.
1911	590,965 475,484
Increase	115,481

by immigration for the period 1901 to 1911 is 115,481. But this figure is not the actual number of immigrants within the area for which the comparison of the

populations of 1901 and 1911 has been instituted. To the immigrants in the marginal statement it is necessary to add the immigrants arriving from the areas excluded from the comparison, as detailed in paragraph 52, into the area of comparison. It would also be necessary to add the immigrants from the unadministered portions of the Upper Chindwin, Myitkyina and Northern Arakan Districts. Such persons have been recorded as being born in these districts, though from a census point of view they should have been recorded as being outside the province. The numbers of such immigrants into the area of comparison between the populations of 1901 and 1911 would be considerable, as there is a marked tendency to migrate from the unadministered territory into districts under administrative control, and from the more remote areas of the province into the regularly administered districts. It is impossible, however, to estimate the number of such immigrants which should be added to the recorded increase of 115,481 to obtain the actual figure for the area now under Disregarding it for the present, the recorded increase due to immiconsideration. gration amounts to 1'12 per cent. Combining this with the 12 per cent. which has been deduced for the natural increase of the population, there remains a discrepancy of 14'43-13'12, or 1'31 per cent., to be accounted for. This percentage would amount to an actual population of 134,923. It can be allotted under the following heads:—

i. Immigration from the unadministered territory and from the excluded areas

of paragraph 52.

ii. A marked improvement in the enumeration in the Bhamo and Myitkyina Districts and in the Northern Shan States.

iii. A slight general improvement in the efficiency of the enumeration throughout the province, rendered possible by administrative improvements, such as the more careful demarcation of village jurisdictions and the improvement in the status of village headmen in the province.

iv. An improvement in the enumeration in the areas hitherto treated nonsynchronously in the Pegu, Thaton, Amherst and Tavoy districts, but

now enumerated synchronously.

Allowing for the first of these causes, the degree of under-enumerationin 1901 would be approximately one per cent. of the total population. It is too much to expect that the highest possible degree of accuracy has yet been attained. Even in Lower Burma, there remain areas in which a synchronous census is not yet possible, and one large region over which administrative control has not been attempted. In Upper Burma, the want of a clearly defined administrative boundary precludes the possibility of absolute precision in the results obtained. It has not yet been possible to attempt a synchronous census in any portion of the Specially Administered Territories. But apart from these main sources of error, there is not a district in the province outside Rangoon, which has not some borderland area, which is beyond the region of normal administration, and for which some special enumeration machinery has to be improvised out of whatever materials happen to It is in such border areas, to which the general instructions issued be available. cannot apply, and for which no check as to the comprehensiveness of the lists of the residential units can be imposed, that under-enumeration is most probable. With each succeeding census the liability to error becomes less, and the disturbance due to their omission gradually diminishes. The census enumeration in Burma is not a uniform record of the population of a homogeneous and fully administered province with fixed and determined boundaries. It is a record of varying degrees of accuracy following tentatively in the wake of administrative extensions, both general and local, gradually becoming more complete and correct, but still wanting in the elements of certitude and comprehensiveness which can only be attained by the slow and gradual process of improved administrative control.

58 Modification in rate of Variation.—The increase of 14'43 per cent. in the population of the province is a marked decline from the increase of 17'5 per

Natural William	lacrense per cont	
	18,1-1,01-	1301-1311.
Control Bands	}	17.5
Deltar Fries Newsper H. Hairbay		25
Caus Kings	14	17

cent. experienced in the previous decade. Analysing the degree of decline over the five natural divisions, the Specially Administered Territories have to be omitted as they have no part in the increase for 1891 and 1901. The decline from 70 to 17 per cent. in the Northern Hill Districts is due to the non-coincidence of the areas of enumeration, and as

these districts were excluded in obtaining the corrected return of 17.5, they have

PROVINCIAL VARIATION, 1901-1911. In the remaining three natural divisions, the variation in the rate of increase has been most remarkably distributed.

While population has increased at an appelerated rate in the Central Racin there. no concern in the general decline for the province. While population has increased at an accelerated rate in the Central Basin, there has been a slight retardation in the Coast Ranges and a striking retardation of the has been a slight retardation in the Coast Ranges, and a striking retardation of the rate of increase in the Deltaic Plains. In the decade 1891-1907, the percentages of variation for the three natural divisions concerned ranged from 0 to 29. variation for the three natural divisions concerned ranged from 9 to 28. The popuhas now contracted to the narrow interval between 13 and 16 per cent. lation of the Deltaic Plains which previously increased at a pace over three times more

rapid than rate of increase in the Central Basin has now only the difference minor of three per cent. their between rates of variation. This tendency towards an equalisation in the rates of increase over the various portions of the proindicates vince, arc there that forces tending towards the equaliol sation nomic conditions throughout its There are area. vast longer tracts of culturno able land in the transformable into first delta, class paddy land with a minimum expenditure and lacapital such Allareas have been bour. appropriated, and large though of waste areas still remain, they are only culturable at a progressively increasing other hand, in the cost.



railway system, and the improvement and extension of irrigation, have extended the possibilities of cultivation over large areas. The tide of immigration into the The tide of immigration into the western deltaic districts, represented by such enormous percentages of increase for the decade as =6 and == for Myannamua and Masuhin respectively. Central Basin the western ucrease districts, represented by such enormous percentages or increase for the decade as 56 and 55 for Myaungmya and Ma-ubin respectively, has now practically ceased. It has been largely deflected into the eastern districts of the easter the possibilities of cultivation over large areas. It has been largely deflected into the eastern districts of the same ticany ceased. It has been largely denected into the eastern districts of the same natural division, Toungoo, Pegu and Thatôn; but to a great extent it has ceased to flow southwards at all. The petroleum industry at Magwe, the irrigated areas of to flow southwards at all. The petroleum industry at Magwe, the irrigated areas of the Myingyan district served to flow Shwebo Vamèthin and Pakôkku and the nortions of the Myingyan district served. to now southwards at an. The perforcion industry at magne, the migated areas of Shwebo, Yamèthin and Pakôkku, and the portions of the Myingyan district served Shwebo, railway have attracted the immigrants who ten years previously would by the railway have attracted the immigrants who ten years previously would Drived, rameting and rakokku, and the portions of the Myingyan district served would by the railway, have attracted the immigrants who ten years previously in the inevitably have migrated to the delta. The accelerated rate of increase in the Deltaic Plaine are completely and the retarded rate of increase in the Deltaic Plaine are completely and the retarded rate of increase in the Deltaic Plaine are completely and the retarded rate of increase in the Deltaic Plaine. Central Basin, and the retarded rate of increase in the Deltaic Plains, are complementary to each other. They are not exactly cause and effect, they are different Central Dasiii, and the retained rate of increase in the Denaic Frame, are complementary to each other. They are not exactly cause and effect; they are different presentations of the same fact. They are both the resultant of the equalication of presentations of the same fact. They are both the resultant of the equalisation of presentations of the same fact.

of increase are 26 and 10 respectively. From a consideration of percentages only, Mergui would appear to be exercising the greater influence on the increase of the

provincial population. Yet the actual increase, as measured by the number of persons per square mile added to the population, is far greater in Henzada than in Mergui. This illustration suggests that in addition to an examination of the rate of increase measured by the percentage of added population, it is necessary to consider the increase measured by the added density of the population per square mile. A comparison of

Kind of Increase.	Mergui.	Henzada.
Actual Per cent Persons per square mile.	22,680 26 2	47,799 10 18

population per square mile. A comparison of the map in the margin with the one illustrating the preceding paragraph indicates the extent of the difference of these two aspects of the variation in the population. The greatest increases measured by the number of persons per square mile added to the population occur in the central and western portions of the Deltaic Plains and in a line of riverain districts in the heart of the Central Basin. It is a matter for surprise that the largest increases in density have taken place where the density of population was already greatest. Henzada was in 1901 the most densely populated district in the province and it is among the seven districts which have added a population of eighteen persons per square mile or more during the decade. Sagaing, in 1901 the second most densely populated district in the Central Basin, is also included in the same seven districts. The remaining five of the districts showing a maximum increase of density also stood in 1901 in relatively high positions in order of density for the province. Subsidiary Tables IV (a) and IV (b) present quantitative statements of the actual and proportional variations of the population distributed among townships and states of different densities. As the mean density of population for the province is 53 only and that for Burma proper is 65, these statements indicate that the bulk of the increase of population is taking place in those portions of the province with a density already well above the mean. It is the comparatively densely populated Central Basin and Deltaic Plains, rather than the districts of the three outlying and sparsely populated natural divisions, which are contributing principally to the increase. And, it is in the comparatively densely populated portions of these two divisions, rather than those possessing but a sparse population, that the largest increases are occurring. The marginal statement gives the actual and proportional increases for all but a few exceptional townships in these two

important divisions. Taking the three classes of townships with densities below 50, from 50 to 100, and from 100 to 150, the increases in actual population are in the same order of magnitude as the existing density, being greatest where the density is greatest, and least where the density is least. In Central Basin, the percentages of increase follow the same order, showing that not only is the increase of population greatest where the density is greatest, but the rate of increase of

Variation in population of townships by density.					
	Increase.				
Density.	Central .	Basin.	Deltaic Plains.		
	Actual.	Per cent.	Actual.	Per cent.	
Under 50 50—100 100—150 · 150—300	54,242 149,440 172,210 136,516	13 19 20 10	69,154 92,578 172,791 193,298	3 <sup>2</sup> 21 18 12	

population is higher in the townships of greatest density. This would appear to indicate a tendency towards a great concentration of population in those areas where it is already most densely distributed, up to a limit of 150 persons per square mile. In townships beyond this limit both the actual increase of population and the rate of increase fall rapidly. In the Deltaic Plains the percentages of increase follow the reverse order of the density and of the actual increase of population, diminishing as the density increases. This indicates that although population has hitherto been attracted to the Townships of greatest actual density, the tendency is decreasing. In the Townships of least density the rate of increase is far beyond the natural rate, the discrepancy being accounted for by immigration. As the density rises, the difference between the actual and the natural rates of increase rapidly falls, until the two practically coincide in the Townships having a density over 150 per square mile.

It is possible to interpret these statistical variations in terms of the actual conditions prevailing in the two natural divisions. In the Deltaic Plains conditions

are much more uniform than in the Central Basin. The contour of the country is less diversified, the rainfall is more regular, and natural means of communication by water are plentiful. Consequently population can be much more widely distributed. Expansion commencing in the neighbourhood of occupied areas proceeds fairly uniformly, but as the density of population rises there is a tendency to go further afield to more remote areas. When the density of population attains a level of 150 per square mile, increase by immigration tends to cease and is deflected to areas of greater sparsity of population. In the Central Basin conditions are much less uniform. The contour of the country is more diversified, the area of culturable land is smaller, the rainfall is less regular, natural communications are more difficult, and there is a much greater degree of dependence on the artificial assistance of railways and irrigation. Consequently the tendency to a broader distribution of population is not so marked as in the deltaic region. It tends to concentrate in those localities having special natural or artificial advantages, up to a limit of 150 persons per square mile. Beyond that limit the tendency to dispersion commences, the increase of population in such localities being considerably below their natural increase.

The additions to the density of the population in the outlying portions of the province, the Coast Ranges, the Northern Hill Districts and the specially Administered Territories, do not compare with the increase of density in the two divisions forming the central portion of the province. Whereas an examination of percentages tends to obscure the amount of increase attained in the latter area, and to give undue prominence to the increases in the outlying regions, an examination of their respective increases of density serves to present their variations in a truer perspective. The differences in the two presentations are seen graphically in

Natural Division.	Increase, 1901-1911.	
	Per cent.	Density per square mile.
Central Basin Deltaic Plains Coast Ranges Northern Hill Districts Specially Administered Territories.	13 16 17 16 22	11 16 3 5 5

truer perspective. The differences in the two presentations are seen graphically in a comparison of the maps in the present and preceding paragraphs. The marginal statement gives a brief summary of the numerical contrast between them. The Central Basin and the Deltaic Plains have added to their densities at the rate of 11 and 16 persons per square mile while the Coast Ranges have added only three persons per square mile to their population, and the Northern and specially

administered portions of the province have increased by a density of 5 per square mile only. These figures are a much more correct indication of the magnitide and importance of the variations than can be obtained by a consideration of the percentages alone.

60. Variation in Population by Townships.—The percentage of variation of the population by Townships is given in Columns 10 and 11 of Provincial Table I. Township areas however have as yet attained a lower decree of fixity than district areas. In the past decade, six townships have been abolished by amalgamation, nine extra townships have been created and the boundaries of 69 townships have been modified, 38 of the modifications being due to the reconstitution of fresh townships on entirely new lines, and the creation of entirely different townships with or without changes of name and headquarters. An attempt involving considerable amount of labour, has been made to reduce the variation of population for this period to the township areas as constituted in 1911. It cannot be claimed that the result possesses sufficient accuracy to base any reliable deductions as to the rates of variation by townships. In the majority of instances the notifications of change of area did not detail the village-tracts affected. Moreover the village statistics for the census of 1901 were given, not by village-tracts but by residential hamlets, and in the majority of cases of alterations of township boundaries, Deputy Commissioners were unable to identify which of such residential units were in the areas transferred from one township to another. The populations given in Column 9 of Provincial Table I contain many entries based rather on the probability that the transferred areas contained certain blocks of residential units, than on the certain identification of the population of such transferred areas. percentages given in Column 10 of the same statement, and illustrated in the map showing the variation of population by townships, are not to be accepted as possessing any large degree of accuracy. No attempt has been made to carry the comparison over identical areas beyond 1901, and the percentages in Column 11 of Provincial

Table I include variations due to changes of area as well as to genuine increases of population. It was intended to utilise the varia. tion by townships to trace to their ultimate sources any marked departures from normal rates of increase, but in the few cases in which theattempt was made the factor of changes of boundaries introduced such disturbances that the intention was abandoned. Such changes been due largely have to abnormal variations of population, and it is precisely where the details of township variations were most required that the figures are to be accepted with the greatest reservations.

61. Doubts as to Reliability of Statistics of Migra-

PERCENTAGE OF INCREASE OF POPULATION (BY TOWNSHIPS). MANIPUR CHINA LUSHA CHERN-SHÃÑ BAY BENGAL SIAM MARTABAH X Decrease. Increase 0-4 per cent. III Increase 20-24 per cent. = Increase 5-9 per cent. Increase 25-29 per cent. III Increase 10-14 per cent. Increase 30 per cent. and over. E Increase 15-19 per cent. N Not previously enumerated

tion.—It is unfortunate that much reliance cannot be placed on the statistics showing the amount of emigration from each district. These are compiled from the records for birthplace presented in Imperial Table XI. The Upper Burma districts were created between 1886 and 1889 and many of them crecord of the district of birth cannot be expected, when the formation. A correct district, as at present constituted, did not take place till some time after the person enumerated was born, and probably after he had migrated from the larger areas the degree of error is lessened, but a utilisation of the statistics are naturally less in 1911 than in 1901, but their whole utility in this respect gration are much more reliable. They are compiled from the upper and the differences between them. The statistics for imming whether he was born in the district of enumeration. In recording arises in determining in which of several possible recently formed and distant shortly after, a period of transition the probability of error in the deduced

figures for emigration is many times greater than that for the corresponding figures for immigration.

#### DISTRICT VARIATION, 1901-1911.

62. Variation of Population in the Districts of the Central Basin.— The general increase of the population by 13 per cent. and of its density by 11 persons per square mile for the districts of the Central Basin, is the resultant of

Districts in Central Basin.					
	Incre	ase.			
District.	Per cent.	In density per square mile.			
Magwe Yamèthin Shwebo Myingyan	+28 +26 +24 +23	+22 +15 +12 +26			
Pakôkku Lower Chindwin Minbu Sagaing Meiktila Mandalay (City excluded)	+15 +14 +13 +12 +11	+ 8 +11 + 9 +19 +12 +10			
Prome Thayetmyo Kyauksè	+ 4 + 4 + 0	+ 4 + 2 + 0			
Mandalay Mandalay City	- 7 -25	-12 -1,820			
Central Basin	+13	+11			

variations ranging from 28 per cent. in the Magwe District to a decrease of 7 per cent. in the district of Mandalay; and from an increase of 26 persons per square mile in Myingyan to a decrease of 12 per square mile in Mandalay. In the latter district the decrease is purely urban, and is due to circumstances already related in the discussion on the urban population in Chapter I. The remaining portion of the district shows an increase corresponding very closely with the natural rate of increase to be expected. It will therefore result in simplicity of treatment if the decrease due to the inclusion of Mandalay City is isolated and excluded from the general discussion of variations of population for the districts of the Central Basin. Considering the rates of increase after this exclusion it is seen that the districts fall into three distinct groups, according as they show an increase largely exceeding, departing but slightly from, or falling

markedly below, the natural rate of increase for the province. The three groups do not approach each other in their extreme items. There is a broad line of division between the lowest constituent of one group and the highest constituent in the one next succeeding. The distinctions between the three groups are not so marked if the increase in population per square mile added during the decade be considered, the large variations in the initial density causing the two measures, the rate of increase and the increase of density, to diverge considerably in order of magnitude. But so marked are the original distinctions in the rate of increase, that the single interchange of positions of the two districts, Sagaing and Shwebo, would make the members of the threefold grouping coincide for both measures of increase. The measure of comparison by the rate of increase per cent. affords the best method of approaching the discussion, the alternative measure by increase of density being utilised when necessary.

It is not suggested by the grouping of the four districts, Magwe, Yamethin, Shwebo and Myingyan that they have any common characteristics beyond that

Density. Increase per cent. District. 1911. 1901. 1901-1911. 1891-1901. 96 72 Magwe 28 13 Yamèthin 57 26 62 24 21

resulting from their inclusion within the same natural division of the province and their abnormal rate of increase. An examination of the latter will indicate to what extent the causes of their exceptional increases are common to several or

all of them, and to what extent, they are separate and individual. The following extract from the Census Report of 1901 expresses a common characteristic of three of them, which can be extended without hesitation to include the fourth:—

"The inhab tants of the Myingyan District are only one per cent. more numerous now than they were ten years ago. In his district report Mr. Parlett adverts to the different causes which might have been expected to bring about this stage of things,

which at first sight suggests stagnation. 'Emigration and immigration in Myingyan' he says 'follow the barometer. It has long been an established custom in this district to migrate when scarcity threatens, and to return when the rains promise a livelihood.' It is doubtless the threatenings of scarcity in the past that has thus arrested the normal growth of the people, and it occurs to me as conceivable that the reason why the readjustment of population after the lean years is slower in Myingyan than in the neighbouring districts of Meiktila and Yamèthin and in Shwebo, areas also liable to scarcity—is that until quite recently Myingyan has not, like these other three districts, been traversed by a railway. Time will show whether the new branch line from Thazi to Myingyan will facilitate and expedite the ebb and flow that are bound to ensue on a failure of crops and a hint of famine."

The tendency to extensive temporary migration operates in various degrees. It was to a retardation of the return of the temporary emigrants that the almost stationary figures of the population of the Myingyan District for the decade 1891 to 1901 was due. This retardation operated in unduly depressing the population for that District in 1901, and thereby caused an undue enhancement of the rate of increase in the period 1901 to 1911. The abnormal increase of 23 per cent. in the decade 1901 to 1911 is complementary to the abnormally low increase of one per cent. in the previous decade. If the two be combined an almost normal rate of increase over a period of 20 years is obtained. Assisted by the branch railway, mentioned by Mr. Lowis as a probable factor in restoring normal conditions, by the discovery of oil and the commencement of the development of the Singu oil area, and by the generally favourable character of the seasons in the past ten years, most of the temporary emigrants have returned.

The increase of 28 per cent. in Magwe is to be attributed to the development of oil production in the Yenangyaung township of this district. There was an increase of 13 per cent. approximating to the natural rate of increase, between

1891 and 1901. Other factors have remained the same for the subsequent decade, but the remarkable increase in the amount of oil produced has attracted a large population which would previously have migrated southwards to the deltaic region of the province. The causes of increase in the Yamèthin and

Divis		Arca irrigated	•
District.	1911.	1901.	Increase.
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Shwebo Yamèthin	135,117 129,128	32,643 93,621	102,474 35,5 <b>07</b>

Shwebo Districts are sufficiently similar to be discussed concurrently. Prior to the construction of the railway to Mandalay, Yamethin was a district of low density of population, and few means of communication with the outside world. greater portion of the Shwebo District was in a similar condition until the railway was extended northwards towards Mogaung and Myitkyina. The construction of the railway made the cultivation of crops for export a profitable occupation. tensive schemes of irrigation have also been carried out in the two districts which rank respectively first and second among the districts of the province, both in the total acreage irrigated, and in the amount of newly irrigated area added during the period, 1901 to 1911. Simultaneously with the increased possibilities of communication provided by the railway, and the increased areas rendered culturable by irrigation, a decline in the areas available for cultivation in the southern portion of the province began to operate. The course and magnitude of migration were Shwebo and Yamethin offered opportunities to intending Upper Burman emigrants much nearer home than the distant districts of the delta. The large increases are a measure of the extent to which they have availed themselves of such

The six districts of the Central Basin with an increase departing but a small decree from the natural rate of increase for the province, would, but for the

intrusion of Myingyan District, form a compact group in the centre of the dry zone of Upper Burma. It has been seen that the rate of increase of Myingyan District is normal if the incidental depression of the figures for 1891 be ignored and the comparison be taken over twenty years instead of

District.	Density.		Increase per cent.	
District	1911.	1901.	1901-1911.	1891-1901.
Pakôkku Lower Chindwin Minbu Sagaing Meiktila Mandalay (City excluded).	66 90 80 171 128 97	58 79 71 152 116 87	15 14 13 12 11	14 18 8 15 16 — 2

over twenty years instead of for the decade. The group of seven Districts (Myingyan included) forms the most typically Burmese portion of the province. The statistics of migration show

that generally the number of emigrants from and immigrants to all these districts is much less than in 1901. The most marked exception is in the Lower Chindwin

District.	Irrigated Area.		
District.	1911.	1901.	Increase.
Pakôkku Mandalay	Acres 47,287 84,281	Acres. 14,148 26,280	Acres. 33,139 58,001

District where the number of immigrants has increased from 4,291 to 22,968. Pakôkku and Mandalay are the only districts of this group affected largely by extensions of irrigation. It is to the extension of irrigated area and the development of oil production in Yenangyat that the increase of population in the Pakôkku District above the natural rate of increase is to be attributed.

The Lower Chindwin District illustrates the possibilities of error in the record of birthplace in Burma. If the records of birthplace are to be accepted as

Lower Chindwin District.				
	1911.	1901.	1891.	
Immigration Emigration	22,968 31,809	4,29t 45,705	2,693 45,971	
Net loss	8,841	41,414	43,278	

correct the net loss by migration has been 43,278, 41,414 and 8,841 for the three years 1891, 1901 and 1911 respectively. This large diminution in the loss by migration between 1901 and 1911 would indicate a much larger expansion of population than was experienced in the decade, 1891 to 1901. Yet the records of the actual population show an increase of 18 per cent. in the earlier period, against 14 per cent. in the later period, when the remarkable difference in the emi-

gration statistics suggests a higher rate of increase. Part of the discrepancy can be traced to its source by examining the statistics for immigration from the Upper to the Lower Chindwin District. It is contrary to actual experience that this southern migration should have increased in such a marked manner since 1901. The general movement southwards is perhaps the most outstanding fact concerning

District.	Area irrigated.		
District.	1911.	1901.	Increase.
Minbu Meiktila Mandalay	Acres. 70,561 120,505 84,281	Acres. 57,110 102,356 26,280	Acres. 13,451 18,149 58,001

the past internal movements of population in the province. It is inconceivable that it was inoperative prior to 1901 along such an important line of communication as the Chindwin river. What probably happened is that the enumerators of the Lower Chindwin District omitted to record a distinctive entry for immigrants from the Upper Chindwin and in the course of tabulation they were entered as being born in the district of enumeration.

Concerning the remaining districts of this group their rate of increase is sufficiently near to that of the natural increase of population by the excess of births over deaths to render unnecessary an examination of the influence of migration on their population. They are districts which have proceeded steadily, losing a comparatively small proportion of their inhabitants by migration to Lower Burma.

Emigrants from Meiktila District.			
1901		44,203 36,243	
Increase	•••	7,960	

In three of the districts, Minbu, Meiktila and Mandalay there have been considerable improvements in irrigation and extensions in the areas irrigated. In Minbu this has been the cause of an advance in the rate of increase. In Mandalay it has enabled the outlying portions of the district to withstand the potent influence of the marked decline in the city population and has transformed a decrease of two per cent. into an increase of 11 per cent. In Meiktila it has enabled a district of high density to

maintain a rate of increase of 11 per cent. and to supply a surplus for emigration. The increase in Sagaing, the most densely populated district in the Central Basin, coincides with the probable natural increase of births over deaths. It has been but little affected by migration within the past ten years. Irrigation plays no part in maintaining and increasing its high density of population. It is rather the long association of the people with the locality and the intimate connection it has exercised on the political development of the Burmese race, which have operated in preventing a large migration of its population.

There remain three districts in the Central Basin, Prome, Thayetmyo and Kyaukse, whose increases are so small that they must have been influenced largely by migration. The vital statistics for the Prome and Thayetmyo Districts show increases of 8.80 and 9.52 per cent. respectively for the decade 1901-1911, by the

operation of the natural excess of births over deaths. These are in all probability an under-estimate owing to the liability of births to be omitted from the records to a

greater extent than deaths. However, accepting the figures as they stand, the natural increases by excess of births over deaths are far greater than the increase in the actual population. The differences should be capable of reconciliation

District.	Density.		Increase per cent.	
District.	1911.	1901.	1901-1911.	1891-1901.
Prome Thayetmyo Kyauksè	130 52 111	125 50 111	4 0	I 4 12

by allowing for the effects of migration; but discounting these as far as possible by calculating the natural population, the discrepancies still remain. The recorded

numbers of emigrants and of immigrants in each district have diminished slightly, whereas to account for the low rate of increase, emigration should have proceeded at a more rapid pace than immigration. The variation in population in these two districts is due to a series of intricate

	Not.	Natural increase.	Incre	ase of
	District.		Natural Population.	Actual Population.
*	Prome Thayetmyo		11,018	13,067 8,569

causes. Prior to the annexation of Upper Burma their population was artificially enhanced by their position as districts near the frontier line between the two portions

of the province under Burmese and under British rule respectively. After the annexation their importance waned, and their surplus population dispersed partly to Upper Burma whence it had largely been recruited, and partly to the delta districts which then offered such excellent opportunities for the settlement of surplus population. This dispersion was responsible for the decreases in their population

Kyaukse District.									
	1911.	1901.							
Immigrant s Emigrants	12,918	17,451 7,192							
Gain	8,528	9,259							

for the decade 1801 to 1901, and it still operates to a limited decree in keeping the rate of increase below the natural rate due to the excess of births over deaths. The statistics for birthplace however are not sufficiently correct to permit the actual extent of this emigration to be determined. It is similarly impossible to reconcile the stationary population of Kyauksè District with the recorded figures for migration. There must have been in the decade a net loss by migration equivalent to about 12 per cent. of the population, but the statistics of birthplace show that the resultant effect of migration on the population differed but slightly at the beginning and end of the period of comparison. Kyauksè is one of the two districts of the Central Basin showing a surplus of immigrants over emigrants. This does not necessarily mean that it is a rapidly progressive district as the surplus of immigration over emigration may be growing less year by year. But it enhances the difficulties of reconciliation of the figures for migration with those showing the comparative absence of variation in the population. The most probable cause of the discrepancy is that the statistics of birthplace are not sufficiently correct to enable the exact amount of migration to and from the district to be determined.

63. Variation of Population in the Districts of the Deltaic Plains.—The Districts of the Deltaic Plains can be divided into three groups

for the purpose of discussing their variation in population for the ten years, 1901 to 1911. The eastern group, comprising the three districts of Pegu, Toungoo and Thatôn, has experienced the most rapid rate of increase. The western group, comprising seven districts and coinciding closely with the area of the delta of the Irrawaddy, shows a remarkable diminution in the rate of increase from that previously experienced. The City of Rangoon, whose variation in population has already been considered in Chapter I, must be placed in the third group by itself. The range of variation throughout this natural division is far smaller than is to be found in the districts of the Central Basin. Excluding the City of Mandalay the variation in the latter ranged from zero to 26 per cent., whereas in the Deltaic plains its range is

		<u></u>					
Districts in Deltaic Plains.							
	Increase.						
Districts.	Per cent.	In density per square mile.					
Pegu	26~	18					
Toungoo	26	12					
Thatổn	21	17					
Myaungmya	18	20					
Hanthawaddy	1.1	21					
Bassein	13	12					
Pyapôn	13	14					
Tharrawaddy	10	12					
Henzada	10	18					
Ma-ubin	10	16					
Rangoon	20	1,711					
Deltaic Plains	16	16					

of Subsidiary Table I for the districts of the Central Basin and the Deltaic Plains respectively, emphasises the diversities in variation in the former and the uniformity of variation in the latter. In the districts of the former, the rate of increase for 1901 to 1911 is sometimes greater than, sometimes less than, and in one case is equal to, the rate of increase for 1891 to 1901. In the latter, the increases for the past ten years are invariably less than for the previous decade. The general increase from 9 per cent. to 13 per cent. in the former is the resultant of most diverse movements. The decline in the rate of increase of the latter from 28 to 16 per cent. is the resultant of a uniform tendency to decline experienced in every component district. The degree of decline is by no means uniform, but it has operated in the direction of greater uniformity, being greatest where the rate of increase was greatest, for the period 1891 to 1901, and least where the rate of increase was least for that period.

It is necessary to repeat the warning that the statistics for district emigration are not to be relied on. Although this division has not been the object of recent annexation yet the boundaries of every district have been changed, some of them repeatedly, within the past forty years. An emigrant of less than forty years old, born in the Dedayè Township would have his birth district changed from Rangoon to Thôngwa, from Thôngwa to Ma-ubin, and from Ma-ubin to Pyapôn by successive administrative changes. It is probable that he would record the name of the district as constituted at the date of his migration. The above is not an exceptional instance. It could be parallelled in almost every district of the division; and instances in which the locality of birth has come under three successive districts in the course of administrative changes could be indefinitely multiplied.

Although the districts of the eastern group of this natural division have the highest rates of increase, it is convenient to consider first the western group with a

72.1.1.1	Den	sity.	Increase per cent.			
District.	1911.	1901.	1901-1911.	1891-1901.		
Myaungmya Hanthawaddy Bassein Pyapôn Tharrawaddy Henzada Ma-ubin	127 177 107 119 151 187	107 156 95 105 139 169	18 14 13 13 10 10	56 20 22 55 17 11 30		

much smaller degree of variation. The higher rates of increase in the eastern group are largely the effect of the retarded increase in the western group and the latter naturally calls for prior discussion. The first two districts inviting discussion are Myaungmya and Pyapôn with reductions in their rates of increase of 38 and 42 per cent. respectively.

In 1891 the areas occupied by these districts were for the most part deltaic jungle, islands of silt raised to a few inches above spring tide level, and covered with a dense growth of rapidly growing, soft-wooded trees and shrubs. Cultivation extended so rapidly in the early portion of the 1891-1901 decade, that administrative officers going to a locality after the lapse of a few months could scarcely recognise their bearings. Creeks with densely wooded banks showing no trace of human habitation, were, in the course of one or two seasons, transformed into regular waterways, with a daily launch service, with cultivation extending to the waters edge, and with teeming villages on their banks. So rapid were the extensions of cultivation, and the denudation of the forests, that it was necessary for the preservation of the valuable fisheries, then existing, to restrict the right to clear jungle within a hundred feet from the banks of a creek; and subsequently, in order to avert a fuel famine in a region, where a few years previously the country was one stretch of virgin jungle, it was necessary to create extensive forest reserves in the few areas still uninvaded by the immigrant cultivators. In 1901 over a third of the inhabitants of each of these two districts were recorded as immigrants from other districts, and though repeated changes of jurisdiction have introduced a large liability to error in these figures, they serve to illustrate roughly the magnitude of the invasion that was then taking place.

At the time of the census of 1901 these conditions were rapidly changing. The reservation of the fuel reserves cut down the area available for extension of cultivation to a large extent, and accelerated the rate of occupation of the remaining areas. At the present time there is but little culturable area in these districts available for extensions of cultivation. Columns 3, 4 and 5 of Subsidiary Table I of Chapter I of this report suggest that only 43 per cent. and 66 per cent. of the total culturable area of the Myaungmya and Pyapôn Districts respectively have been brought under cultivation, and that there are larger areas still available.

The term culturable is, however, extremely elastic. It includes practically all land that is not on a moderately steep hillside. An examination of the so-called culturable areas in the Myaungmya and Pyapon Districts would disclose that many of them are liable to inundation by salt water, that others are included within the areas of reserved inland fisheries, and that others are not culturable without protection by embankments on a scale precluding any possibility of immediate cultivation. Whatever advantages they may have had in the past, with respect to the quality and extent of culturable waste land, have now disappeared. They are no longer the objective of the majority of immigrants from the north. The districts to the east of the delta area, at one time not considered comparable with the western delta districts as offering possibilities of extension of cultivation, now attract the bulk of the emigrants from Upper Burma.

Ma-ubin, Bassein and Tharrawaddy are three districts which developed earlier than Myaungmya and Pyapôn and consequently do not show such remarkable differences in their percentages of increase for the successive decades of 1891-1901 and 1901-1911. Henzada, the most densely populated district in Burma in 1901 and 1911, completed its development at a still earlier stage. It is enabled to support its population without the necessity of the safeguard of large emigration by the most complete protection from inundation by embankments enjoyed by any district Its immigrant and emigrant populations are approximately equal to each other and they did not differ to any large degree in 1901. The variation of the population of the Hanthawaddy District is influenced largely by its situation, completely surrounding the City of Rangoon. So far as the rate of increase of its population is above the natural rate it is due not to extensions of cultivation but to the development of small towns and industries in the vicinity of the City of Rangoon. The oil refining industry has established itself in the Kyauktan Township with Syriam as its headquarters. Despite several extensions of the boundaries of the Rangoon Municipality to include the factory area on the Kanaungto creek, numerous rice mills exist within the Twante Township just beyond the existing municipal boundaries. Insein, the constructive centre of the Burma Railways, has adopted many suburban characteristics, and the stretch of country between Rangoon and Insein is becoming more and more a residential extension of Rangoon itself.

The three eastern districts of the Deltaic Plains are now tending to monopolise the immigrants coming southwards from Upper Burma. Although the per-

centage of increase for Pegu District is exceeded by that for Magwe and equalled by those for Yamethin and Toungoo, the actual increase of population (89,549) is greater than that of any of the regular districts of the province. Its immigrants (132,430)

District.	Dens	sity.	Increase per cent.		
District,	1911.	1911. 1901. 1901-1911		1891-1901.	
Pegu Toungoo Thatôn	97 57 85	79 45 68	26 26 21	43 32 29	

number more than those of any other district except Rangoon. The diminution of its rate of increase from 43 per cent. for the previous decade to 26 per cent. for the period 1901-1911, and the cultivation of 83 per cent. of its available culturable area, indicate that it has approached its limits of rapid expansion, and that henceforth its increase will be approximate to the natural rate of 12 per cent. for the decade. Although Toungoo has a low density of population, its inhabitants numbering but 57 to the square mile, it is extremely doubtful if the amount of culturable area available for future occupation will afford much scope for a continued increase of population at the present rate. Only 15 per cent. of its total area is classed as culturable, and of this two-thirds has already been occupied. Thatôn with 60 per cent. of its area culturable and only about one-third of this already occupied would appear to afford

already occupied would appear to afford greater possibilities for future expansion than any other district in the province.

A comparison of the figures for Toungoo and Thatôn afford a striking illustration of the doubtful nature of the migration statistics deduced from the record of birthplace. The natural increase of their populations must be approximately the same, and the marginal statement

		Toungoo.	Thatôn.	
Immigrants	1001	•••	37,122 85,904	41,432 40,02 <b>1</b>
Emigrants	1901		16,729 16,60 <b>7</b>	8,250 16,449
Increase of 1901-1911		tion,	71,761	73,465

shows that their actual increases are not markedly different. Consequently, both must have been influenced by migration to a somewhat similar extent. The

increase of 48,782 immigrants in the Toungoo District, while the number of emigrants remained stationary, explains satisfactorily the large increase of population recorded. But in Thatôn the recorded tendencies of migration are exactly the reverse. The number of immigrants remained stationary and the emigrants increased by 8,199, both movements together suggesting a depression of the population below the natural rate of increase. An increase in the number of immigrants to one district and an increase in the number of emigrants from another district have had apparently almost identical effects on their respective populations. Here again, as in other instances quoted, the statistics of birth districts recorded are rendered unreliable by recent administrative changes in which both districts have been involved.

64. Variation of Population in the Northern Hill Districts.—It is impossible to introduce any degree of exactitude into the recorded rate of increase

•.	Den	sity.	Increase per cent.			
District.	1911.	1901.	1901-1911.	1891-1901.		
Bhamo Myitkyina Katha Ruby Mines Upper Chindwin	16 8 28 18	11 4 25 16 8	36 25 12 10	90 32 95 157 39		
Northern Hill Dis- tricts.	15	12	17	70		

in the five Northern Hill Districts from 1891 to 1901. Attempts have been made to calculate the variation over identical areas but without much success. It is better to acknowledge frankly the impossibility of effecting an accurate comparison, than to attempt it, and to give under the guise of accuracy what probably would be incorrect degree of accuracy can be

results. For the years 1901 to 1911, a fair degree of accuracy can be claimed for the recorded populations of the Katha, Ruby Mines and the Upper Chindwin Districts and for their respective rates of increase. The high rates of increase for Bhamo and Myitkyina must be attributed to under-estimation of the population in 1901, the amount of immigration recorded not being sufficient to account for such exceptional increases as 36 and 25 per cent. The figures for the density of the population of these two districts must also be looked upon with suspicion. The areas of portions of these districts, as given, are mere estimates, nor is it certain that the census enumeration has yet exhaustively covered all the remote residential units in the Kachin Hill Tracts. No reliance whatever can be placed on the figures for migration as calculated from the birthplace statistics, in calculating the amount of variations. The diminution of the number of immigrants to the Myitkyina District from 35,885 in 1901 to 21,653 in 1911, and the increase of the number of emigrants from the Upper Chindwin District from 3,626 in 1901 to 21,210 in 1911 are both improbable and due to the incorrect record of birth districts in a region where administrative jurisdictions are in a state of flux.

65. Variation of Population in the Coast Districts.—There is a distinct line of cleavage between the rate of variation of the populations of the Arakan

		Den	sity.	Increase per cent.		
District.		1911.	1901.	1901-1911.	1891-1901.	
Akyab Northern Arakan,		103	94	10 7	16 41	
Kyaukpyu Sandoway	•••	42	38	10	3 16	
Salween	•••	27 17	24 14	13 23	20	
Amherst		52	43	23	29	
Tavoy		25	21	23	, 16	
Mergui	•••	11	. 9	26	20	
Coast Ranges		38	33	16	. 17	

and Tenasserim portions of the districts in the natural division which has been termed the Coast Ranges. The variation in the Arakan districts ranges from 7 to 13 per cent.; that for the Tenasserim districts from 23 to 26 per cent. This difference is partly due to closer enumeration in the remote portions of the Tenasserim Districts, which even yet have not been brought within the scope of the synchronously enumerated area, and partly to the stimulus they have received from the commencement of the mining and rubber industries on a large scale within their limits. The District of Northern Arakan has

indeterminate administrative boundaries and the variations of its population, 41 per cent. from 1891 to 1901 and 7 per cent. in 1901-1911, are to be accepted with hesitation. The increases of 10 per cent. for Akyab and Kyaukpyu and 13 per cent. for Sandoway may be accepted as genuine. There has been, according to the

statistics for birthplace, a marked decrease of immigration in all three districts and the economic advantages offered by these districts to cultivators from Chittagong is less than formerly. It is probable that the more stringent collection of capitation tax from temporary immigrants from beyond the border in the Akyab District, which has been a marked feature of its revenue administration in the past few years, is responsible for the decline in immigration from 83,115 in 1901 to 47,476 in 1911. The census would naturally be associated in the minds of the immigrants with the payment of the tax. The somewhat later date of the enumeration, the 10th March in 1911 as against the 1st March in 1901, would also tend to a diminution in the number of immigrants recorded, the extra period of ten days after harvest operations had been completed giving a larger time for the ebb of migration back to Chittagong to gather force. The figures for migration for the Tenasserim Districts are almost identical with those of 1901 and it is difficult to reconcile them with the large rates of increase recorded. It is almost certain that the birth districts of persons enumerated in the districts of Tavoy and Mergui but born beyond their limits have not been correctly recorded.

66. Variation of Population in the Specially Administered Territories.—These territories are, as their recorded densities of population demonstrate,

extremely sparsely populated, and they present enumeration difficulties to such an extent that a synchronous census over any portion of their area has not been feasible. The high percentages of increase in the Chin Hills, the Pakôkku Hill Tracts, and in all portions of the Northern Shan States except the Hsipaw State, are largely due to improvements in enumeration, resulting from the more effective administrative control which has been effected in the interval between 1901 and 1911. of allotment the respective shares played by the natural increase of excess of births over deaths, by migration and by

T	Den	sity.	Increase	
Territory.	1911.	1901.	per cent., 1901-1911.	
Northern Shan States.	32	17	29	
Southern Shan States.	22	19	10	
Pakôkku Hill Tracts	7	5	30	
Chin Hills	15	11	37	
Specially Adminis- tered Territories.	23	18	22	

improvements in enumeration would be purely speculative. Over portions of the Northern Shan States, and throughout the Pakôkku Hill Tracts, census records of birth place were not taken. Nor are there any administrative records of births and deaths in any of these Specially Administered Territories. It is better to acknowledge the defects in the material available for a comparison, than to draw incorrect deductions from data with many possibilities of inaccuracy. The records for the Southern Shan States are more reliable than those for the remaining three territories, though a perusal of the entries in Provincial Table I suggests that in some respects they are not to be accepted without question.

67. General Conclusions.—A review of the conditions of the variation of population in Burma shows that the true rate of increase is masked by the two

factors of successive extensions of census limits, and by a gradual progressive increase in the efficiency of enumeration. As to the first of these influences, the only period for which the census areas were identical at two succeeding enumerations was from 1872 to 1881, a period when the second disturbing factor was at its maximum. It is possible to isolate the increases due to extensions of area, and to correct the rate of increase deduced from a comparison of the total populations recorded. The effect of the corrections, and the corrected increase per cent. over identical areas for the dates of each comparison, are given in the marginal statement. But the effect of the increased efficiency of

Disturbance in rate of variation due to extension of census area.									
Period.		Absolute increase per cent.	Corrected increase per cent.						
1871-81 1881-91 1891-1901 1901-1911	•••	36 107 36 15'5	3 <sup>6</sup> 25 17'5 14'4						
1872-1911	•• (	341	135						

But the effect of the increased efficiency of enumeration is far less easy to estimate. In so far as it is due to a change in methods, to the substitution of a synchronous for a non-synchronous record, or to the substitution of a non-synchronous record for an estimate, it may be isolated and corrected by the omission of the area in which the change was effected.

There is however another class of improvement of the enumeration, mere gradual and more subtle in its operation and more difficult to detect and estimate. It is due to the gradual improvement in the administrative control of the country, to an improved village administration, to improved communications, to improved knowledge of remote areas, and to improvements in the class of persons available for the supervision of census operations and for the actual enumeration of the people. It has been suggested in the course of the discussion that the amount of the recorded variation due to improved efficiency of enumeration was 28 per cent, for the period 1891-1901, and one per cent, for the period 1901-1911. It has also been suggested that finality in this respect has not been attained, and that there is still a liability to error from under-enumeration.

there is still a liability to error from under-enumeration.

Considering the increase for the past decade only, the ostensible increase of 15.5 per cent, is reduced to 14.4 per cent, by the exclusion of additional

Conditions are much more uniform than in the Central Basin. There are no districts which cannot absorb their natural increase, and consequently the resultant rate of progress is high, there being no emigration to neutralise the effect of the immigration into the eastern districts. But the conditions which induced a general increase of 28 per cent. in the interval between 1891 and 1901 have vanished and future rates of increase will probably approximate even more closely to the natural rate. The high rates of increase in the Tenasserim districts of the Coast Ranges are partly due to improved enumeration and partly to new developments of the mining and rubber industries.

An examination of the density of the population indicates that there is no general tendency to a large increase of population in the areas of low density. Such increases as are recorded in these areas in as far as they are beyond the natural rate of increase, are due to improvements in enumeration rather than to genuine increases by migration. There is a tendency to move from areas of low density into areas of moderate density. Measuring by township densities a density of 150 persons per square mile is, under the present conditions of the province, a critical limit. In the Central Basin, once this limit is reached, there is a tendency to emigrate and the increase of the population falls below the natural rate of increase. In the deltaic districts, on passing the limit of 150 persons per square mile there is a cessation of immigration and population thenceforward tends to approximate to the natural rate of increase. The principal factor in fixing a limit to the rate of increase is the amount of waste land available for extensions of cultivation, by the operations of individual cultivators, or of small groups of cultivators acting in co-operation. Such lands are not so extensive as the figures in Columns 3, 4 and 5 of Subsidiary Table I of Chapter I of this report would indicate. In many districts the only possibilities of extension of cultivation are afforded by areas giving a gradually diminishing return to a progressively increasing amount of labour and expense. The era of almost automatic and unconscious expansion by individual agency gives signs of its approaching end. It may seem premature to suggest that the attainment of a density of population of 53 persons per square mile for the province, or 65 per square mile for Burma proper, are indications of a change in the nature of future rates of increase. But these figures serve to disguise the density of population in certain portions of the province. In the two most important divisions, the densities of population have risen by substantial additions to 93 and 124 persons per square mile. The number of districts capable of absorbing large numbers of immigrants is diminishing, and the number for which emigration would be a safeguard from undue congestion is increasing. The changed conditions will probably result in the introduction of new industries and more varied methods of agriculture, and in the entry of the Burmese population into urban occupations to a greater extent than formerly. The period of an almost single-minded devotion of the national energies to an agricultural extension in one direction has probably ceased, and a period in which the Burmese race, forced by the gradual pressure of an increasing population on the means of subsistence, will compete for a leading part in all the various branches of the life of the province is foreshadowed.

Subsidiary Table I .- Variation in Relation to Density since 1872.

### SUBSIDIARY TABLE II.-Variation in Natural Population.

		Population	1 in ì911.			Populatio	n in 1901.		Variation per cent.
District and Natural Division,	Actual population.	Immi- grants.	Emi- grants.	Natural population.	Actual population.	Immi- grants.	Emi- grants.	Natural population.	(1901-1911) in natural population Increase (+) Decrease(-).
I	2	3	. 4	5	б	7	8	· 9	10
Province	12,115,217	590,965	10,902	11,535,154	10,490,624	475,489	9,460	10,024,595	+ 15
I.—Central Basin	4,113,894	106,135	345,912	4,353,671	3,647,330	78,304	417,622	8,986,648	+ 10
Prome Thayetmyo Pakôkku Minbu Magwe Mandalay Shwebo Sagaing Lower Chindwin Kyauksè Meiktila Yamèthin Myingyan		22,762 8,230 6,303 15,927 17,112 41,870 12,225 8,424 22,068 12,918 9,589 30,730 9,715	43,276 34,529 35,080 32,289 31,233 59,205 37,808 31,147 31,809 4,390 44,203 23,766 49,101	334,834	252,305	25,616 15,751 11,529 18,411 7,749 58,419 9,036 3,990 4,291 17,451 9,008 27,696 9,150	48,179 40,781 41,882 49,769 47,891 70,326 53,175 38,981 45,705 7,192 36,243 7,606 63,625	388,367 264,736 387,985 265,629 286,850 384,414 331,030 312,760 317,797 130,994 279,540 223,167 413,379	+ 4 + 13 + 15 + 15 + 15 + 15 + 12 + 12 + 13 + 16
II.—Deltaic Plains	4,332,402	743,246	29,080	3,618.236	3,741,328	718,319	26,717	3,049,728	+ 19
Rangoon Hanthawaddy Tharrawaddy Pegu Bassein Henzada Myaungmya Ma-ubin Pyapôn Thatôn Toungoo	293,316 539,109 433,320 429,121 440,988 532,357 334,852 305,073 250,215 416,975 351,076	201,870 128,824 54,627 132,430 41,322 42,271 78,122 50,030 112,794 40,021 85,904	41,033 30,816 27,821 15,337 25,190 41,926 2,327 30,027 5,866 16,499 16,607	132,479 441,101 406,514 312,028 424,856 532,012 259,057 285,670 149,287 393,453 281,779	395,570 339,572 391,427 484,558 282,932 278,309 226,443	170,301 127,107 72,561 110,712 45,614 51,591 110,843 71,769 86,123 41,432 37,122	28,570 33,777 28,860 16,502 31,167 45,480 9,997 6,473 7,768 8,250 16,729	103,699 380,932 351,869 245,362 376,980 478,447 182,086 213,013 148,088 310,328 3258,922	+ 28 + 16 + 16 + 27 + 13 + 11 + 42 + 34 + 27 + 9
III.—Northern Hill Districts	662,821	71,374	22,269	613,716	565,382	83,847	7,005	488,540	+ 26
Bhamo Myitkyina Katha Ruby Mines Upper Chindwin	85,577 198,193 100,618	19,906	9,249	64,836 196,401 82,554	70,515 68,527 176,223 87,694 153,423	15,310 35,885 11,779 23,471 9,512	3,162 1,652 8,450 2,223 3,620	67,369 34,294 172,894 66,446 147,537	+ 33 + 89 + 14 + 24 + 22
IV.—Coast Ranges	1,601,139	97,973	27,672	1,430,838	1,298,835	129,015	30,150	1,199,970	+ 19
Akyab Northern Arakan Kyaukpyu Sandoway Salween Amherst Tavoy Mergui	22,234 184,916 102,803 46,608 367,918	1,020 2,817 2,750 1,991 39,891 2,667	59 6,188 3,987 466 18,250 4,475	45,083 346,277 137,161		83,115 761 7,971 9,429 3,860 40,698 1,596 6,825	6,879 4,409 13,566 3,724 663 18,204 6,087 1,858	405,430 24,330 174,422 85,222 34,640 277,679 114,470 83,777	19 13 8 2 2 3 2 5 9 2 5 2 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5
V.—Specially Administered Territories,	1,504,961	29,980	32,480	1,507,461	1,237,749		•••		
Northern Shan State Southern Shan State Pakôkku Hill Tracts Chin Hills	s 900,202 26,251	11,118	20,938	910,022 26,091	816,354	7,688 2,528  1,819	} 29,854  979	1,157,082  86,349	+13

# SUBSIDIARY TABLE III.—Comparison with Vital Statistics.

	În 190	1-1910,	Number p	er cent. of	1	Increase (+) or	decrease ()
District and Natural Division.	Total nu	mber of	popula 1901		Excess (+) or deficiency	of population compared w	on of tott
-	Births.	Deaths.	Births.	Deaths.	births over deaths.	Natural population.	Actual population.
1	` 2	3	4	5	6 -	7	- 8
		·	-				
Province (21 Districts only)	1,853,296	1,393,731	33:17	24-95	+ 459,565	+ 812,848	+804,691
I.—Central Basin (2 Dis- tricts only).	218,599	167,240	86·10	27·82	+61,859	+ 20,856	+ 21,686
Prome Thayetmyo Pakôkku Minbu Magwe Mandalay Shwebo Sagaing Lower Chindwin	d of births in rural areas was not 665 menced till 1907. 214	ecord of deaths in rural graces was not go commenced till 1902.	35°38 37°20   	27.58 27.68   	+ 28,534 + 22,825  	+ 11,018 + 9,838 + 51,211 + 14,672 + 44,180 - 26,219 + 50,976 + 22,074	+ 13,067 + 8,569 + 52,277 + 29,668 + 70,201 - 25,737 + 69,472 + 34,342
Kyauksė	commenced	ចន្ទ	•••	•••	•••	+ 7,219 + 1,904	+ 39,79 <sup>2</sup> + 173
Meiktila Yamèthin	Record	Record are comm	•••	•••		+ 34,896 + 77,282	+ 27,517 + 64,222
Myingyan	ا ﴿ قِيرَا	ا ق قرا	•••	•••		+ 67,972	+ 83,001
II.—Deltaic Plains	1,229,545	952,512	82·86	25:48	+ 277,038	+ 588,510	+ 691,074
Deltaic Plains (excluding Rangoon).	1,186,341	855,563	33.83	24'40	+330,778	+ 539,730	+543,188
Rangoon Hanthawaddy Tharrawaddy Pegu Bassein Henzada Myaungmya Ma-ubin Pyapôn Thatôn Toungoo	43,204 157,770 157,944 127,309 121,276 190,155 250,094 105,884 75,909	96,949 117,953 109,042 98,052 88,243 132,782 183,904 65,184 60,403	18·39 32·54 39·93 37·49 30·98 39·24 31·75 30·82 27·17	41.28 24.33 27.57 28.88 22.54 27.40 23.35 18.98 21.63	- 53,745 + 39,817 + 48,902 + 29,257 + 33,033 + 57,373 + 66,190 + 40,700 + 15,506	+ 28,780 + 60,169 + 54,645 + 66,666 + 47,876 + 53,565 + 150,827 + 83,125 + 22,857	+ 47,886 + 64,847 + 37,750 + 89,549 + 49,561 + 47,799 + 51,920 + 26,764 + 29,772 + 73,465 + 71,761
	•••		•••	•••	***	+ 125,178	+ 97,489
Bhamo Myitkyina Katha Ruby Mines Upper Chindwin	No records of births compiled.	No records of deaths compiled.	***	•••	  	+ 22,171 + 30,542 + 23,507 + 16,108 + 32,848	+ 28,296 + 17,050 + 21,970 + 12,924 + 17,199
IV,—Coast Ranges	405,152	273,979	32-67	22.09	+ 131,173	+ 223,482	+191,981
Akyab Northern Arakan Kyaukpyu Sandoway Salween Amberat Tavoy Margui	\$4,029 35,747	Records. 38,469 22,773 Records. 62,875 22,245	28:59  32'00 39'31  32'38 41'31 39'47	22'21  22'79 25'05  20'95 20'23 23'23	+ 30,716 	+ 78,516 - 3,057 + 13,865 + 18,818 + 10,443 + 68,598 + 22,691 + 20,994	+ 48,277 + 1.552 + 16,089 + 11,876 + 8,771 + 67,745 + 25,314 + 22,680
V und poeining himle/stared Carottanian			-,,	•••		+ 237,939	· 287,212
Mariagra Salan Sciles Southern Salan Sciles Fiddless Hill Tructs Chie Hills	Ne tracked of Linths compiled.	Ne in adds of deaths templed.	***	904 900 909 904	  	} + 205,690 { + 32,249	+137,263 +83,343 +13,135 +32,367

# Subsidiary Table IV.—Variation by Townships and States classified according to density.

#### (a) Actual Variation.

		Vari	ation in To	wnships an comi	d States wi mencement	ith a pop of decad	ulation p le of	er squar	e mile at	
Natural Division.	Decade.	Under 50.	50-100.	100-150.	150-300.	300-450.	450 <b>-</b> 600.	боо-750.	750- 1,000.	1,000 and over,
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Province		563,840	291,163	361,955	368,612	15,367	137	2,112		12,284
Burma Proper		321,162	272,830	860,949	866,837	15,367	137	2,112		12,284-
I.—Central Basin		54,242	149,440	172,210	136,516		137			45,981
IIDeltaic Plains		69,154	92,578	172,791	193,298	15,367				47,886
III.—Northern Hill Districts.		85,179	6,557							
IV.—Coast Ranges		112,587	24,255	15,948	37,023			2,112	•••	10,379
V.—Specially Adminis- tered Territories.		242,678	18,333	1,006	1,775			•••		

#### (b) Proportional Variation.

		Perc	entage o	f variatio	on in Tornile at co	wnships : ommence	and States ment of de	with a pop cade of	ulation per	square
Natural Division.	Decade.	Under 50.	50-100.	100-150.	150-300,	300-450.	450-600.	боо-750,	750-1000.	1000 and over,
1	2	3	4	5	б	7	8	9	10	11
Provinco		21	16	19	11	7		4	•••	2
Burma Proper		19	17	19	11	7	•••	4		2
I.—Central Basin		13	19	20	10	•••		•••		22
II.—Deltaic Plains		32	21	18	12	7	•••	•••		20
III.—Northern Hill Districts.		17	15			•••	•••		••• ,	•••
IV.—Coast Ranges		22	7	19	16	•••	•••	4		19
V.—Specially Administered Territories.		24	10	5	13	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••

#### CHAPTER III.

#### Birth-place.

#### GENERAL SURVEY.

68. Statistics of Migration.—One aspect of the statistics of birth-place contained in Imperial Table XI, that concerning the ascertainment of the natural growth of different parts of the province, has already been considered with reference to the variation of population in Chapter II. Another aspect, that concerning the migrations of the people from one part of Burma to another, and between Burma and other countries, still remains for consideration. The five subsidiary tables printed at the end of this chapter have been compiled to exhibit in a concise form the general course of migration from and into each district and natural division of the province, and between Burma and the remaining Indian provinces. In order to simplify Subsidiary Tables I and II, showing the actual immigration and emigration for districts and natural divisions, the last three figures of each entry have been omitted, and the statements show the number of thousands, and not the number of individuals, included in each several category. Table III reduces these figures to proportions, and in order to test the nature of the migrations introduces figures for the sex proportions of immigrants and emigrants. Subsidiary Table IV compares the migrations between natural divisions as shown by the figures for birth-place in the census returns for 1901 and 1911, and the fifth subsidiary table gives the movements of population between

Burma and each Indian province.

The reliability of the statistics for birth-place has been frequently questioned in the discussion on the variation of the population in Chapter II of this volume. The entry, in column 12 of the enumeration schedule, of the birth-place of a person born in a district other than the district of enumeration, is utilised in a double Such a person is classed as an immigrant to the district of enumeration and as an emigrant from the district of birth. For instance, a person born in Prome and enumerated in Henzada, is counted as an emigrant from Prome and as an immigrant into Henzada. Such a method would give both valuable and reliable results in a province with a comparative fixity of administrative areas. Burma there has been no such fixity within the lifetime of the present generation. In Upper Burma, administrative districts were not formed till the period from 1886 to 1889, and in the interval there have been numerous major and minor readjustments of district boundaries. In Lower Burma out of the eleven districts now constituting the natural division of the Deltaic Plains, only two were in existence at the commencement of the census era in 1872, and the boundaries of these two at that period were widely different from their present boundaries. To repeat an illustration already given, a resident in a portion of the Dedaye Township, who had never left his native village might return with truth that he was born in any one of the Rangoon, Thôngwa, Ma-ubin or the Pyapôn districts, his village having successively been included in these administrative units. If he were recorded as being born within any of the first three he would go to swell the immigration and emigration returns, though by hypothesis he had never even left his native village. It would be possible to give numerous instances in which two alternatives to the present district in which the place of birth is situated could with equal truth be But the possibilities of error are multiplied in the case of emigrants who have actually left the locality of their birth. The largest classes of emigrants, young men leaving home to make a livelihood in a distant part of the province, or the younger members of families emigrating for a similar reason, would not in a large number of instances have a sufficiently exact knowledge of the recently formed district area in which they were born, to be able to give its name correctly. The village of birth might be remembered, and the name of the township or of the measurest large town in the locality, and with the aid of these materials the census enumerator mould enter to the best of his ability the birth district of the person enumerated. Lapse of time would increase the liability to error due to subsequest changes. The district might be correctly recorded with reference to the

date of the birth of the immigrant, or to the date of his transfer to the district of enumeration, but this would not necessarily represent the correct birth-district in the present scheme of administrative units. It is consequently necessary to look with a certain amount of suspicion on the deduced statistics for migration for individual districts. But for the natural divisions of the province the figures can be accepted with a fair degree of certainty. They are broad areas in which the uncertainties as to the exact district of birth would have but little effect. The probability of an entry giving a district in the wrong natural division is much more remote than the probability of an incorrect district being returned. Internal migration will therefore be considered rather with reference to the broad movements from one portion of the province to another than with reference to inter-district migrations.

69. Types of Migration.—Migration is not a phenomenon of uniform type. It varies from the temporary casual visit to a neighbouring village, to a permanent removal to a distant country entailing a complete break of association with the country of birth. Though there are an infinite number of gradations between these two extremes, for practical purposes they may be reduced to five; casual, temporary, periodic, semi-permanent and permanent.

These may be distinguished as follows:-

(1) Casual.—The minor movements between adjacent villages.

(2) Temporary.—Due to journeys on business, visits to places of pilgrimage and pagoda festivals, and the temporary demand for labour when new roads and railways are under construction.

(3) Periodic.—Such as the annual migration which takes place in different tracts at harvest time, and the influx of population into towns having

seasonal industries.

(4) Semi-permanent.—When the natives of one place reside and earn their living in another, but retain their connection with their own homes, where they leave their families and to which they return in their old age and at more or less regular intervals in the meantime.

(5) Permanent.—Where overcrowding drives people away, or the superior

attractions of some other locality induce people to settle there.

These classes of migration though of distinct types, fade into each other with broad, vague and ill-defined boundaries. On the borderland of each are to be found numerous examples which would present difficulties of classification. Such difficulties are however always present in reducing the complex actions of human life to absolute classes or figures. Marginal and doubtful cases are generally to be found introducing an element of uncertainty and hesitation into the precision which is assumed by the presentation of facts by means of statistics.

70. Casual, Temporary and Periodic Migration.—The records of birth-place do not permit the numbers of persons born outside the districts of enumeration to be classified according as they fall within one or other of the five main types of migration. As to the first type, casual migration does not affect the returns unless it has taken place between two adjacent villages on opposite sides of a district border. Temporary migration except at the date of the census is also unrecorded, but such migration is at its maximum in Burma during March, the month in which the census was taken. By that time the main crop of the province has been harvested and the operations of transport are in full swing. The price of the crops has been paid, travelling peddlers are traversing the district with wares for disposal, and villagers are visiting the nearest towns to lay in a stock of general utilities for the coming year. The climate, midway between the cold and hot seasons is most propitious for pagoda festivals and for dramatic entertainments. Settled weather, the cessation of agricultural operations and the possession of the proceeds resulting from the sale of the crops, form a unique combination favourable for extensive travelling. There are more persons temporarily absent from their homes on the date of the census than at any other period of the year. But unless their journeys extend beyond the limits of the district in which they were born they do not affect the record of the enumeration As for periodic or seasonal migrations there are three distinct classes of such migrations in Burma. The first is the seasonal movement from Upper Burma to assist in the cultivation of the crops in Lower Burma. It varies in intensity from year to year, falling after a good season in Upper Burma almost to zero, rising after a shortage in Upper Burma to large dimensions. It is at its maximum some time before the date of the census. In 1911 this seasonal

Deper Burma crop of 1910 was a good one and high prices were realised. The total number of immigrants to Lower Burma was therefore less, and the later date of the census (10 days later than in 1901) gave an opportunity for many of them to return to their homes before their enumeration was effected. There is also a tendency, at present not very widespread, but gradually growing, for the landholder in Lower Burma to engage organised travelling bands of Indian coolies to carry out his requirements for agricultural assistance, rather than to depend on the uncertain, spasmodic and unorganised labour of individual immigrants from Upper Burma. The second class of seasonal migration is that of coolies from Southern India to assist in the milling and export of the paddy crop of the province. This is at its height at the date of the census. A third seasonal migration is the annual incursion of agricultural labourers from Chittagong into the districts of the Arakan Division. This is somewhat similar to the annual migration from Upper to Lower Burma and back, being equally variable in its operation.

71. Semi-permanent and Permanent Migration.—Midway between periodic and absolute, or permanent, migration, is a type including migration of a semi-permanent nature, in which although there is no periodic return to the original home, the emigrant intends to depart for a limited period only. His family is usually, though not invariably, left behind and he makes occasional returns at irregular intervals and otherwise retains his interest and connection in the locality of his birth. A large portion of the immigration to Burma from Bengal and Upper India is of this nature, and the sojourn of the European community in the province also belongs to the semi-permanent type of migration. There is very little of this type of migration among the indigenous inhabitants of Burma, though a series of bad seasons may sometimes force a portion of the acasonal migration from Upper Burma to be prolonged for several years and to assume a semi-permanent character. The tendency to the utilisation of Indian coolie labour in agricultural operations in Lower Burma is also transforming the nature of a portion of the seasonal migration from India and making it semi-Coolies who at one time came to Rangoon merely for the rice permanent. milling season and then returned to their country, now manage to find work in the districts of Burma near Rangoon for the greater portion of the year. Organised in regular bands they travel from village to village performing in succession the operations of ploughing, transplanting and reaping for the larger hindholders, then returning to Rangoon in time for the milling season from proceeds in the same directions and in the same manner as the dispersal of the Indian immigrants. The opportunity for the permanent settlement of large numbers of Indians and Chinese has been given by the concentration of the activities of the indigenous population on the development of the agricultural possibilities of the country. The Indian and Chinese emigrant has entered in response to the demand for labour in the transport, distributive and special urban industries which the Burmese and other indigenous races for the time being failed to supply.

72. Method adopted for classifying Migration.—In default of the possibility of obtaining a complete record at the date of the census of the five main types of migration, or even, had such a complete record been obtained, of showing the respective amounts of migration under each type, the statistics of birth-place have been analysed according as the place of birth was in the district of enumeration, contiguous to it, or a non-contiguous district of the province or of India, or beyond India. The results are embodied in Subsidiary Table I. Subsidiary Table II performs the contrary operation, analysing the birth-place statistics according as the place of enumeration was in the district of birth, or a contiguous or non-contiguous district of the province. The second table was not carried on to show emigration from each district to countries beyond the province, partly because the numbers are too insignificant to be included in a statement compiled by thousands instead of by individuals, and partly because the place of birth given by emigrants from Burma was in a large number of instances of a general or indeterminate nature, such as Upper or Lower Burma, and the amount of emigration recorded from each district was therefore not a reliable indication of its true amount. It is important to notice that in Subsidiary Table I and II the entries against each natural division are not necessarily the totals of the entries for each district in that division. A person may be born outside the district of record but within the same natural division in which he was He would be an emigrant and an immigrant so far as his birth and enumeration districts were concerned, but would be neither with respect to his Moreover a district may be contiguous to the borders of a natural natural division. division without being contiguous to several of the districts in that natural division. There is therefore no correspondence between the figures for individual districts and the composite figures for natural divisions. This distinction between migration calculated with respect to the broad areas of natural divisions and with respect to narrow district boundaries is indicated in Subsidiary Table III. In this table, for the divisional areas, the proportional migration is given for both the possible meanings of the term. The upper figures represent the proportional migration if each district is in turn considered the area from which migration is determined; the lower figures represent the same if each natural division as a whole area is taken as the basis of calculation.

Omitting the 59,006 persons whose birth-places were not recorded, the percentage of the remaining population classified according as their birth districts fall into six main categories is given in the marginal statement. Persons

enumerated in the district of their birth amounted to 88.3 per cent. of the total population. Of the remaining 11.7 per cent., internal migration was responsible for 6.8 per cent., immigration from India for 4.1 per cent., and immigration from beyond the limits of India for the remaining 8 per cent. of the population. It is extremely doubtful if the distinction between migration from a contiguous district and that from a non-contiguous district has any valid meaning in Burma.

Birth-place.	Percentage of total population.
District of enumeration	88.3
District contiguous to District of enumeration.	3.1
Non-contiguous districts	3.7
Contiguous districts of other provinces.	<b>5</b> 5
Non-contiguous parts of other provinces.	} 3.6
Outside India	.8

district has any valid meaning in Burma. It does not correspond with any of the distinctions between the various types of migration. It is nearly as probable that migration to a contiguous district should be permanent as that it should be temporary or periodic, and the most marked form of periodic migration is that taking place between the non-contiguous districts of the Central Basin and the Deltaic Plains when labourers from the former division come to the latter to assist in general agricultural and harvesting operations. Nor is the immigration from the non-contiguous portions of India necessarily permanent. Immigration from Madras coast to Burma is so impermanent that in the decade 1901-1911, the number of emigrants leaving Burma for Madras was 81 per cent. of the number

of immigrants arriving from that port. No general conclusion can be obtained by a consideration of the contiguity of the district of enumeration to that of birth as to the relative proportions of the main types of migartion.

#### INTRA-PROVINCIAL MIGRATION,

73. Migration from Central Basin to Deltaic Plains.—So far as migration within the limits of the province is concerned, immigration and emigra-

II matera forez La Grida	Central Dana 2 Mars
Tran	M'state.
1311	34.517
Degram	73,713

tion consist of one single phenomenon presented from different aspects. This is best seen by a reference to Subsidiary Table IV, where omitting the entries indicating enumeration in the district of birth, a vertical column gives the immigration to the divisions at the head of the column, from each of the remaining divisions. Similarly each horizontal row gives the emigration from the division in column 1 of the same row, to each of the remaining divisions. So far as inter-migration between natural divisions is concerned, that between the Central Basin and the Deltaic Plains is the only movement of any numerical significance, that between any of the other natural divisions being less than

the immigration and emigration of many individual districts in the province. The magnitude of the migration from the Central Basin to the Deltaic Plains has decreased from 384,517 to 311,804 since 1901. This decline does not indicate that there has been a contrary movement, and that the difference of 72,713 is due to the return of a number of the previous emigrants to their original homes in Upper

low density and capable of supporting a much larger population. Indeed, the discussion will result in throwing light on to one of the contributary causes of the decline. The only part played by Government in the migration has been the regulation of the distribution of waste land to intending occupiers. Two methods, one by grant, and the other by simple occupation, or squatting as it was termed, were permitted. Grants up to 15 acres per applicant were readily given, but grants of above that area could be given by superior officers only and were more jealously restricted. Stringent conditions regarding transfer, or alienation, or the amalgamation of several grants into one holding, were imposed. At first, so heavy was the demand that the machinery for enforcing the conditions was ineffective. But gradually, control was assumed and the penalties for breaches of conditions were enforced. This however led to a general recourse to extensions ineffective. of cultivation by the second method, or simple occupation. Although until a period of 12 years should elapse, no right or title to land so occupied could accrue, cultivators found this method in actual practice a more effective means of acquiring a title to fresh land than through the agency of a grant. It was subject to no conditions, nor penalties, nor limitations of area, and the liability to eviction during the first twelve years was so slight, that land occupied in this manner was readily accepted as security for mortgages, even before full landholders' rights had When the attention of the Government was drawn to the fact that the title given by grant was less valuable than that obtained by the mere process of occupying waste land without any permission whatever, steps were taken to remove the anomaly. The conditions applying to unauthorised occupations of land were made as stringent as those applying to grants. In some districts the dual method of occupation of waste land, by grant and by squatting, was discontinued, and the single method of simple occupation under the same conditions as to alienation and limitation of the size of holdings as had previously applied to grants, was adopted.

Under the conditions so imposed by Government, the migration of cultivators from Upper to Lower Burma was the result of private enterprise. Labourers

arriving from Upper Burma to assist in the cultivation and harvesting of the crops in Lower Burma heard of the possibilities of becoming landholders themselves on a scale more than sufficient for the full support of their families. They were brought into contact with capitalists, mostly Indian, who specialised in the financing of extensions of cultivation. At first such financiers were prepared to advance, on a mortgage of the land so occupied, the capital needed for the transformation of the waste area into cultivated land, and for the sustenance of the cultivator until he was able to support himself by his crop returns. But as the conditions regarding alienation of newly occupied land were more stringently enforced the possibility of foreclosing

Cultivated land in Burma. (Land Records Returns.)					
Year.	Acreage.				
	Mortgaged. Occupie				
1900-01 1901-02 1902-03 1903-04 1904-05 1905-06 1906-07 1907-08 1908-09	463,401 590,784 776,674 906,705 1,012,386 1,196,283 1,261,726 1,306,198 1,022,390 1,007,719	8,452,202 8,858,716 11,288,179 12,920,447 13,453,086 13,776,947 15,051,365 15,167,128 15,577,803 15,823,057			

such mortgages vanished. The restrictions came into full force in the year 1907, and their results are apparent in a decline in area of land held under mortgage, and in the reduced rate of extensions of occupied area from 1906-07 onwards. The decline in the amount of capital advanced on the mortgage of cultivated land since 1907-08 has been operative principally on the fringe of cultivation where extensions were in progress. Synchronising with the completion of the appropriation of the more easily culturable wastes in the deltaic districts, it assisted in lessening the amount of migration which they had hitherto been capable of absorbing. At the time when extensions of cultivations were becoming more dependent on a larger capital outlay, the amount of capital available was diminished. The concurrent operation of the two influences operating in the same direction in staying the rate of extension of cultivation within the past few years is one of the causes of the diminished amount of migration recorded.

In the Resolution on the Report on the Land Revenue Administration of Burma during the year ending the 30th June 1911, the agricultural year in which the census was taken, the two phenomena of retardation in the rate of extensions of cultivation, and the contraction of credit, are referred to in the following terms:—

"In Lower Burma at any rate, after making allowances for areas flooded and under existing orders not shown in the assessed area at all, it seems to be certain that there has

been since 1905-05 a generally progressive retardation in the rate at which new land has been taken up, and that the retardation was marked in the year under review."

"The areas of land sold, mortgaged and redeemed in 1910-11 were the lowest on record, and the values of land in sale and mortgage, for the third year in succession declined. The decline in the areas alienated in Lower Burma and in the values realised are attributed in the report mainly to the fear of agrarian legislation or of eviction from land purchased or taken up on mortgage. It is probable however that the restriction of credit that followed the collapse of the land boom of a few years ago is a more powerful factor in the decline. So far as the areas are concerned, the returns do not adequately represent the real fall, since in the last eight years more than one thousand square miles of land have been added to the area in Lower Burma from which alienations are reported, and these regions have automatically contributed an annual increase, which has nevertheless been far less than sufficient to arrest the process of decline."

It is not only with respect to the broad current of migration from the Central Basin to the Deltaic Plains that migration within the province has slackened since 1901. A reference back to Subsidiary Table II of the previous chapter will show that migration to and from each district, without reference to the main direction of the resultant flow, is now considerably less than at the earlier period. the figures from their emigration aspect, in the Central Basin, out of thirteen districts the emigration from eleven is less than in 1901, in the Deltaic Plains it is less in eight out of eleven districts, and in the Coast Ranges it is less in six out of eight districts. A part of this lessened migration is nominal, and due to more fixed administrative conditions with fewer transformations of district boundaries. As such transformations become more remote in point of time, their disturbing influence in causing fictitious migration records becomes less. But even allowing for such a diminution it is clear that the general amount of migration as measured by the number of persons resident in districts other than that of birth on the date of the census is much less than formerly. The province has now settled down after the era of rapid transition due to the annexation of Upper Burma and the colonisation of the waste portions of the delta districts. A rough approximation to equality of conditions has been effected as a result of the previous dispersal of population. The difference in the relative advantages of migration and of attention to the possibilities of local development, has been gradually diminishing. The density of population of each district is now much more proportionate to its natural resources than has hitherto been the case, and its increase tends to distribute itself more locally than when a great disparity existed between the respective abilities of different localities to support their population. The phase of lessened migration may be temporary only. The tendency towards a position of more stable equilibrium may be disturbed by future developments which may alter existing conditions and produce new movements. Rubber and oil have considerable possibilities, and the potentiality of the latter in affecting migration is seen in the case of the Magwe The development of rubber was in too early a stage at the date of the ceasus to have had a marked effect on migration. For the present there is a tendency for the majority of the districts of the province to absorb their own natural increases and to depend much less than in the past on migration to other portions of the province as an outlet for their surplus population.

EXTERNAL MIGRATION.

powerful and widespread race is due to Indian immigration. Just as in the past the Burmese tribes assimilated what was essential and what was advantageous from the immigrant Indian, and evolved a highly individualised racial existence from the amalgamation, there is reason to believe that the present phase of Indian immigration is strengthening rather than weakening the hold of the Burmese on the province. It is true that they have lost for the time being a portion of its urban industry, but it has still to be demonstrated that the loss is more than temporary. It is more than compensated by the remarkable manner in which they have availed themselves of the opportunities afforded by the colonisation of its available wastes. The dispersal of the Burmese population over its unoccupied portions is a far sounder basis of future permanence and stability than would have been obtained by a larger concentration in its towns for the purpose of sharing in its urban and industrial development. In the course of the discussion on urban population in Chapter I of this report, it was demonstrated that the increase of the Buddhist or indigenous population has been tending towards agricultural pursuits, the percentage of town dwellers diminishing from 67 to 61 per cent. between 1901 and 1911. is perhaps no more stable form of population than a peasant proprietory firmly established on the land. In the meantime, the Indian immigrant has been concentrating in the towns, more than a half of the Indian population being town dwellers in the main portion of the province comprising the natural divisions of the Central Basin and the Deltaic Plains. It would be contrary to experience to anticipate that a comparatively small town population with a disproportionately large number of males will succeed in affecting to any considerable extent the racial existence of a widely dispersed rural community. It is interesting, in view of the concern now being generally felt as to the continued existence of the Burmese race, to consider the view, previously obtaining, that it would be to the mutual advantage of both Burma and India to colonise the unoccupied areas of Burma by the surplus population from the most congested districts of India. A brief review of the previous policy and its results is of considerable importance not only in indicating its marked divergence from the present point of view but also in estimating the future possibilities of Indian immigration and its effects on the population of the province.

- 76. Assisted Indian Immigration.—For some time subsequent to the annexation of Pegu by the British in 1852, the policy of the Government was to intervene actively to promote the migration of cultivators from India to Burma. It was considered to be a mutual advantage to relieve the congestion of the most densely populated districts in India, and to introduce new crops, new methods of cultivation and much needed population into Burma. Repeated attempts were made to encourage such migration by direct action, but they were all unsuccessful. The whole subject was reconsidered by the Famine Commissioners in 1888, and their recommendations were embodied in the Circular of the Government of India in the Revenue and Agriculture Department, No. 96F.—6-59, dated the 19th While adhering to the general principles of relieving specially October 1888. congested tracts in India by transferring the indigent population of those parts of Burma, and of promoting the wealth of Burma by developing the cultivation of tracts lying waste and unproductive, it was considered that such attempts should in future be made by private capitalists, as personal supervision and continuity of effort were essential to success. Rules were framed and published in Revenue Department Notification of the Government of India, No. 521R., dated 24th July 1889, to carry out the recommendations. Only two estates were formed under these rules, as follows:-
  - (i) a lease expiring in 1953 of 27,506 acres to Mr. Mylne at Kyauktaga in the Pegu District with an option of renewal for 63 years at a rent equal to two-thirds of the ordinary revenue on land cultivated and of similar renewals in perpetuity,

(ii) a grant of 15,000 acres in 1894 to Rai Jai Prakash Lal Bahadur, C.I.E., at Zeyawaddy in the Toungoo District, the revenue after 1994

being two-thirds of the ordinary rate.

In the meantime the attitude of the Local Government towards Indian immigration was rapidly changing. The extraordinary extensions of cultivation effected by the Burmese emigrants from Upper Burma in the delta districts, demonstrated that it was not essential for the progress or prosperity of the province to colonise its waste areas by means of settling Indian immigrants upon the land. Indian labour was required, but rather in the direction of preparing the crops for

export after they had been reaped, than in introducing new crops or in extending the area under cultivation. It was determined that the system of agriculture most suited to the province was that of the peasant proprietor, in which the cultivator held his land direct from the State in small plots, sufficient for supplying the full requirements of family life, and not too large for cultivation by the members of the family without recourse to assistance by outside labour. The settlement of Indian labour on the land introduced new and complicated relations of landlord and tenant, contrary to the ideals towards which the efforts of Government were consciously It attempted in a petty, cumbersome and ineffective manner what was being accomplished expeditiously, effectively and on the largest scale by the indigenous population. It was supplying an unfelt want partly by deflecting labour from where it was urgently needed. In 1908, the Local Government caused an enquiry to be instituted into the working of these estates, from which it appeared that the object of the concessions had not been realised to any consider-In the cause of the Kyauktaga grant, the grantee was no longer recruiting from the congested districts in India referred to in the circular, but was engaging for cultivation ordinary coolies who had come over, mostly from Madras to labour on public works, and who would have been more usefully employed, so far as Burma was concerned, if they had continued on such work. On both the grants, the immigrants were paying somewhat high rents to the grantee, and they did not appear in some cases to be living under ordinary sanitary conditions. They had introduced no new kinds of cultivation and had failed to adapt themselves to the climate and manner of life prevailing in Burma.

The total population settled on the two estates is less than 10,000. On the Kyauktaga grant the majority of the settlers are of agricultural castes from the United Provinces, the district of Fyzabad

Grant or lease.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
Kyauktaga Zeyawaddy	4,415 5,065	2,589 2,800	1,826 2,265
Total	9,48ō	5,389	1,091

United Provinces, the district of Fyzabad supplying the greatest number from any individual district. On the Zeyawaddy grant the majority of the settlers are from Behar, the Shahabad District supplying 3,494 of the total. In both grants the immigrants live in self-contained Hindu villages, influencing but little, and influenced but little by, the Burmese life surrounding

them. They have maintained their caste system and rules with greater success than the majority of Hindu immigrants into Burma who are necessarily brought more closely into contact with the disintegrating influence of Burmese life and opinion.

77. Nature of demand for Indian immigration.—The results of these two efforts to establish an Indian peasantry in Burma confirms the opinion that the natural attraction of Burma for the Indian immigrant is not its agricultural possibilities. With the exception of the agricultural immigrants from Chittagong into the district of Arakan, few Indians come to Burma with the intention of embarking in agriculture. The economic demand of Burma is not for agricultural but for urban labour, not for the raising of a crop, but for its disposal, and for the supply of the agricultural population of the province with their general requirements. It is true that the extension of cultivation in the past has proceeded so rapidly that a large portion of the extended area has been necessarily mortgaged to pay the expenses of transformation of wild jungle into culturable land. Owing to this necessity, Indian money-lenders have obtained control of large areas of cultivated land. It is also true that the purchase of land is a favourite form of investment with Indian merchants and traders who have made their money in non-agricultural industries in the larger towns of the province. This possession of land by Indian

Agricultur.	رط جندت	r religions.
Religion		Percentage of total griculturalists
Bundlikt	,	85 <b>.0</b>
Amerika		۲.۶
Herda Mahameda		1.1
	n '	-213
t, faires e	** 1	1.7

landholders has stimulated to some extent the cultivation of the land by Indian cultivators. But the number of Indian agriculturalists among the total population is extremely small. Reference must be made to Imperial Table XVD and to Subsidiary Table No. VIII of Chapter XII of this report for a complete analysis of the impression made by the Indian on the agriculture of Burma. Hindus and Mahomedans combined do not amount to more than 3'3 per cent. of the total agricultural population, using the term in its widest sense. Or, putting the same facts in another way, the percentages

of the Hindu and Mahomedan populations of the province supported by agriculture

are 23.5 and 46 respectively. The percentage for Mahomedans is unduly increased by the inclusion of Akyab where there is a large indigenous agricultural Mahomedan population. Excluding these, about one quarter only of the Indian population of the province is concerned with agriculture.

78. Decline in Indian Immigration.—Quite apart from the statistics of birth-place it is possible to obtain a broad general view of the extent of extra-

provincial migration by means of the records of the numbers of immigrants passing through the Port of Rangoon. Mr. Lowis obtained from the Customs authorities statistics for the period between March 1891 and February 1901 shewing a total of 1,092,762 immigrants and 813,554 emigrants giving an excess of 279,208 for the decade. The marginal statement compiled for the corresponding period of the past ten years 1901 to 1911, shews that the amount of immigration has just about doubled, and the amount of emigration more than

- A	ligration through	Port of Rangoon	•
Year.	Immigration.	Emigration.	Surplus.
1901-02	145,217	97,320	47,80
1902-03	149,384	105,280	44,10
1903-04	165,555	115,770	49,78
1904-05	167,102	98,221	68,88
1905-00	213,230	165,191	48,03
1906-07	248,756	200,085	48,67
1907-08	249,521	201,915	47,60
1908-09	230,750	235,007	-4,25
1909-10	259,462	253,349	6,11
19:0-11	269,217	247,627	21,59
	2,098,194	1,719,765	378,42

doubled in the later of the two periods. The surplus migration remaining in the province, nearly 100,000 more than the surplus for the earlier decade, would indicate that Burma is offering an increasing field for immigration. But a closer inspection of the figures shews a decided decline in the last few years of the decade. From 1901 to 1908 there was a remarkable uniformity in the annual gain to the province by migration, the figures departing for one year only, that of 1904-05, from a narrow range between 44,000 and 50,000. In the year 1908-1909 there was a remarkable change, the number of emigrants leaving Burma being greater than the number of immigrants arriving, possibly a unique experience in the history of the province since it came under British administration. In 1909-10 migration resumed its wonted general direction but at a greatly reduced gain to the population of the province. In 1910-11 a

further recovery was made, but the resultant gain is still less than a half of the normal annual gain at the commencement of the decade. It is not that the number of immigrants They fell have become less. from 1907-08 slightly 1908-09 but since then they have arrived in greater numbers than ever before recorded. It is the large increase in the number of emigrants which has produced so marked a change in the character of the migra-

Year.	Immigration from Madras.	Emigration from Madras.	Surplus.
1601	84,329	54,488	29,84
1902	80,916	64,345	16,571
1903	100,645	81,265	19,380
1004	127,622	83,721	43,901
1905	124,565	90,216	28,149
1906	152,207	135,354	16,853
1907	105,614	93,793	11,823
1908	119,742	89,516	30,220
1909	131,587	112,827	18,760
1910	133,495	125,984	7,511
	1,160,522	937,508	223,014

tion. Emigration has doubled in the second five years of the decade as compared with its first five years. As the Port of Madras contributes more than half the

immigrants to Burma and receives more than half its emigrants, an examination has been made of its migration statistics to see if they correspond to the movement of figures for the Port of Rangoon. A general correspondence can be detected, but it is marked to a certain extent by the figures for Madras being compiled for the calendar year, which changes in correspondence is best seen in the

Gain by migration in first and last five years of decade 1901.					
Surplus measured by.	1901-05	1300-10	Decline.		
Migration through Port of Rangoon.	258,706	119,723	—138,983		
Migration from Port of Madras.	137,842	85,172	52,670		

calendar year, which changes in the middle of the migration season. The correspondence is best seen in the surplus population remaining in Burma as the resultant of the two movements. The disturbing effect of the different annual periods is largely eliminated when the differences of the two movements,

Emigrants from Madras to Straits Settlements.					
1901 1902 1903 1904 1905 1906 1907 1908	27,950 19,622 22,960 28,249 40,900 52,306 62,537 58,778 48,719 85,015				
Total	447,036				

instead of their absolute numbers, are compared. Comparing the gain of population to Burma by migration in the first five years of the past decade with that for the second five years there is a marked decline recorded. This decline has proceeded concurrently with a marked increase in the emigration from Madras to the Straits Sottlements. This emigration has advanced from, 27,950 in 1901 to 85,105 in 1910, the greatest advances taking place in the second half of the decade, when Burma began to be seriously The rubber industry of the Straits Settlements is a formidable competitor with Burma for labour from Madras, in several ways. It has introduced a large and rapidly growing demand tending to deflect in a different direction that portion of the supply which would in the past have been available for increased immigration into Burma. It has also induced a large emigration from Rangoon to the

. Straits, many of the emigrants from Madras coming to Rangoon for the busy season and then proceeding to the Straits Settlements when the off season

Migration to and from Madras Port 1901-1911.					
		Immigration.	ration. Emigration.		plus.
	~~~~	miningration.	Dingration.	Actual.	Per cent.
Burma Straits	•••	1,160,522 447,036	937,508 215,887	223,014	19 44

arrives, instead of returning as formerly back to Madras. is to this triangular migration that the large increase of emigration from Rangoon in the past five years is largely due. Moreover the Straits Settlements retain a much larger proportion of their immigrants than Burma. In the ten years from 1901-1911 Burma re-

tained only 19 per cent. of the total immigrants arriving from the Port of Madras, whereas the percentage of immigrants arriving within the same period from the same port, who were retained in the Straits Settlements, was 44.

But it is not only to external influences such as the deflection of labour from Madras to the Straits Settlements that the change in the resultant migration between India and Burma is to be attributed. The decline in the number of Indian immigrants absorbed into the province has occurred concurrently with the decline in internal migration described in paragraph 74. To a certain extent they are both manifestations of the same operating forces. The tendency towards the equalisation of economic conditions within the province has made it necessary for the inhabitants of the majority of the districts of Burma to seek to absorb their natural increases of population locally, and to depend less than formerly on migration. But this can only be done by entering occupations formerly relinquished entirely to immigrant Indians. In Upper Burma there are indications that concerted action is being taken by the Burmese to prevent the Indian coolie from establishing himself in many localities. Contracts are now being accepted and performed by Burmese labour which formerly would have been given as a matter of course to Indian contractors employing Burmese labour. This tendency is but in an elementary stage, but with a steadily increasing economic pressure it may be expected to gain force. Among other influences tending to reduce the demand for Indian labour, the strenuous attempts made by the Local Government during the latter part of the decade 1901-1911 to discourage transfers of recently extended cultivation to large land holders, and to encourage extension by small holdings sufficient for the needs of one family, must be mentioned. The use of Indian labour in agricultural operations is fostered by large holdings, whereas small holdings given to bond fide agriculturalists tend to confine agricultural extensions to the members of the indigenous races. It has been seen that one of the causes of the reduced migration from Upper to Lower Burma is the withdrawal of capital at a time when extension of cultivation can only be effected by increased capital expenditure. But the effect on Indian cultivators has been greater than on immigrants from Upper Burma. The Burman immigrant is affected only by the lessened rate of extension. The Indian immigrant is affected not only by the lessened rate of extension, but also by the fact that he is almost entirely excluded from participation in the extensions under the later restrictions. The decline in Indian immigration manifested by the migration records of the Port of Rangoon must therefore be attributed to the operations of two distinct forces working concurrently in the same direction. Simultaneously with an increased demand for Indian labour in the Federated Malay States, there has been a tendency towards a reduced demand for such labour in Burma. The latter has been due largely to the fact that the abnormal activity succeeding the annexation of Upper Burma has quietened down, and a period of more steady progress has now commenced. The natural increase of the population is able to cope with the modified conditions now obtaining, without recourse to outside assistance to the extent that was formerly necessary. Under the double stimulus of an increased attraction in another direction, and a gradual though slow limitation of its sphere of utility in Burma, migration from India, measured by the surplus of immigration over emigration, has declined considerably during the past few years.

79. Comparison of birth-place with shipping statistics.—Although the statistics for migration into the province through the Port of Rangoon for the

period of 1901-1911 shews a net gain to the province of 378,429, and although by far the greater portion of this surplus is from India, the statistics for birth-place shew but a trifling increase of 77,746 in the number of persons born in India. As the proportion of immigration.

Gain of population by migration through Port of Rangoon.					
Year.	Immigration.	Emigration.	Surplus.		
1901-1911	2,098,194	1,719,765	378,429		

from India as recorded in the birth-place statistics is about five times the immigration from countries other than India, it is legitimate to assume that about five-sixths of

the surplus of 378,429 is due to migration from India. On this assumption, the gain to the population of the province by migration from India should have been somewhat over 300,000. It seems almost impossible to reconcile so large an initial gain with the final resultant of 77,746. The explanation is to be found partly

Year.	Born in India.	Increase.
1911	415,953 493,699	 77, <b>7</b> 46

in the exceedingly high death-rate among the majority of the immigrants from India, and partly in an actual recorded decrease in the immigrant Indian population of the Akyab District, which will be separately considered. If the figures for Akyab District be excluded the number of persons born in India increased by 107,679, from 342,221 in 1901 to 449,900 in 1911. A reference to Subsidiary Table III of Chapter II of this volume shews that Rangoon has the high death-rate of 41.28 per cent. for the decade 1901-1911. The principal contributary to this high rate is the large number of immigrant Indians congregated therein. They are mostly new to the climate, they have hard, long, and monotonous labour to perform, they are ill nourished, living penuriously with a view to saving the greater portion of their wages, and they are housed in barracks, which however efficiently kept and inspected, are but a poor substitute for home life. Such conditions produce an abnormally high deathrate amongst them. Even when steadied by the more normal rate of the ordinary population of Rangoon, the resultant is as high as 41.28 per cent. for the decade on the initial population. The surplus of immigration over emigration must not, therefore, be counted as a net gain of population to the province. In a great measure it is needed to maintain the numbers at a stationary level, and it is not until the large proportionate loss by death has been made good that an addition to the population by migration occurs. The net gains for the period 1901 to 1908 are much less than the surplus calculated in the first marginal statement of the But in 1908 the number of Indian immigrants was subjected preceding paragraph. to a double depletion. Instead of there being a surplus of immigration to compensate for the loss by death, there was a surplus of emigration to add to the loss by death, and to cause a marked reduction in their numbers. In the period from 1909-1911, there has been a partial recovery, and for the two years prior to the Census, immigration has exceeded emigration. But the excess has not been sufficient to cover the loss by death, and the number of Indian immigrants resident within the province must have progressively declined since 1908. It is to this loss for the past three years that the slight degree of increase in the number of immigrants from India is to be attributed. Had the enumeration taken place in 1908, an increase commensurate with that between 1891 and 1901 would have been recorded.

80. Seasonal migration between Chittagong and Akyab Districts.— There are many reasons for a separate treatment of the migration between India and the Akyab District. It differs materially from the remaining immigration into Burma in that it comprises the only appreciable overland migration between Burma and India. Every year, there is a periodic migration of coolies from Chittagong to assist in agricultural operations in Akyab. The amount of migration fluctuates greatly, falling to very small dimensions after a good season, and rising considerably

Immigration into Akyab District,						
Year.	From Chittagong.	From rest of India.	Total from India.			
1991 1901	30,521 54,843 54,734	13,278 18,589 6,421	43,799 73,732 61155			

after a bad season, in Chittagong. Only a comparatively small number remain permanently behind in Akyab, the majority returning to their homes in Chittagong after the reaping of the crops. The marginal statement shews a marked fall in the number of immigrants from India since 1909, due principally to a decline in the number of immigrants from Chittagong.

The later date on which the Census was taken in 1911, the 10th March against the 1st March in 1901, must have had a considerable effect in reducing the numbers recorded. The first half of March is the period when the immigrants are returning to their homes in large numbers after the completion of harvest operations. A postponement of the record by ten days in the busiest portion of the emigration season would cause a marked reduction in the number of immigrants to be entered. But this could not account for the whole of the large decrease recorded, and the principal cause of the greater portion of the decrease is still to be considered. It is impossible to test the records of birth-place by any recorded statistics of actual migration. There are three main routes, one entirely by sea, by the steamers of the British India Company, one partly by land to Maungdaw, and thence by the steamers of the Arakan Flotilla Company, and the third entirely by land. No records of persons using the two latter methods of travelling are kept. Coming to Akyab, the majority of the immigrants travel by one of these two latter methods, not having sufficient means to pay for a passage by steamer direct to Akyab. On returning to Chittagong, the majority return direct by sea, partly because they have the means to pay for their passage, and partly because, if they have so far succeeded

	en Akyah and Be	
Year.	Immigrants,	Emigrant
1501	11,783	17,13
1902	15,327	27,85
1903	14.317	20,80
1904	14,174	19.70
1505	16,743	19.98
1905	19,292	20,67
1607	23,135	30,60
1925	34,421	41,50
1977)	36 747	45,00
1910	37, 123	55,43

in evading assessment to Capitation Tax, they are certain of escape, once they are on board. Accepting the figures for migration by sea as being a partial presentation of the total movement, it is seen that while the immigration for the past three years has remained stationary, emigration has largely increased. It would be perhaps too great an assumption to accept this tendency to increased emigration compared with immigration as typical of the whole. But the search for the cause of the increased emigration by sea has revealed a credible explanation of the general decline in the returns of persons in the Akyab District, recorded as being born in Chittagong. It is to be found in

the following extract from the Land Revenue Administration Report for Burma, for the year ending 30th June 1907:—

were assessed as married men at the higher rate of Rs. 5. The Steamer Companies, who do business between Chittagong and Akyab, complained with special reference to the system of assessment on arrival that their passenger traffic fell off. The Commissioner subsequently directed that the immigrants should not be assessed until they had been employed, and orders were also passed for the assessment of coolies whose wives were in Chittagong at the unmarried rate. The Deputy Commissioner remarks that these Chittagonian coolies come to Akyab, only when crops fail in Chittagong and work is scarce, and that changes in contemplation in Chittagong may provide them in a few years with sufficient work at home. Compared with the figures in Akyab, all other changes are insignificant."

In this extract, the decline and even the extinction of this migration is fore-Apart from the extra revenue received, the check on immigration resulting from the stringent assessment of the Capitation Tax is considered to have produced two beneficial results. It does not seem that any further explanations concerning the decline in the number of immigrants from Chittagong are needed. The migration is seasonal, and consequently the later date of the Census of 1901, at a time when the immigrants were returning to their homes, resulted in a smaller record; it is fluctuating, so that marked changes in numbers were to be anticipated; it has been subjected in the past few years to a heavy taxation from which it had hitherto been largely exempt; its diminution is considered to be productive of beneficial results by the local authorities, and the stringent assessment of the tax is stimulated by other than purely revenue considerations; its decline was foretold four years before the Census was taken; and finally, so far as the records of actual migration are available, they suggest that emigration is proceeding more rapidly than immigration. Apart entirely from a genuine decrease, it is probable that immigrants, fearing assessment to the tax, avoided being entered in the enumeration records.

81. Abnormal age and sex distribution of Indian immigrants.—In discussing the general influence of Indian migration on the province of Burma, it is necessary to draw attention to the remarkable disparity in the numbers of the sexes of the immigrants from India. A detailed discussion of the conditions

and results of such disparity is, however, more pertinent to Chapters II and VI of this Report dealing with the "Movement of the Population" and "Sex", respectively. Reference should be made to these Chapters for a consideration of the disparity as it affects these phenomena, respectively. Similarly, the age distribution of the immigrants by which the population of the province between 15 and 45 years of age is unduly increased, can be discussed more suitably in Chapter V, specially devoted

Persons born in India.			
Sex.	Numbers.		
Male Female	423,169 70,530		
Disparity	352,639		

to a consideration of the ages of the inhabitants of the province, than in a Chapter dealing with the broad aspects of migration.

82. Chinese immigration.—Of the 88,626 persons recorded as being born in Asiatic countries other than India, 75,365 were born in China. It is possible by a combination of the figures recorded in Imperial Tables XI and XIII, to arrive at the number of Chinese immigrants, and the number of persons born in Burma

claiming to be of Chinese race. The figures are approximate only, for it is not a fact that the Chinese in the province, not born in China, must necessarily have been born in Burma. Moreover, the crude figures from the Imperial Tables require modification to allow for extensions of census limits,

Year.	Total.	Born in China,	Born in Burma.
1911	122,834	75,365	47,469
1901	62,486	43,328	19,158
1891	41,457	23,060	18,397

and to enable the comparison to be made over identical areas for the years of comparison. In 1901, the inclusion of the Shan States was responsible for

a small portion of the increase in the
numbers of the Chinese recorded, and
in 1911, the extension of Census limits
to Kokang and West Manglün brought
considerable numbers of Chinese on to
the records. It is necessary to exclude
the Specially Administered Territories
if a comparison extending beyond the
current census is to be attempted. E

Chinese Population of Burma Proper.						
Total.	Born in China.	Bôrn in Burma.				
83,762	62,178	21,584				
57,780		17,564 18,397				
	,	Total. Born in China.    83,762   62,178   57,780   40,216				

Effecting this exclusion, it is seen that

the apparent increase from 62,486 to 122,834, almost doubling the numbers of the Chinese race in Burma within the past ten years, is due mainly to the extension of Census limits over regions on the Chinese border containing a large indigenous Chinese population. The nearest approximation to the increases due to the three causes of extension of Census limits, immigration, and

Increase in Chinese Population	on, 1901-1911.
Cause of Increase.	Numbers.
Extension of Census Limits Immigration Natural increase	34,366 21,962 4,020
Total	60,348

natural increase that can be effected, is given in the marginal statement. In Burma Proper, the increase by immigration is 21,962, or 54 per cent. over the number of immigrants in 1901. An analysis of the Chinese population by sex for the past two enumerations affords interesting results. The disparity of the sexes has increased both actually and proportionately, the number of males added to the popula-

tion being 22,709, as against 3,273 females. The extreme disparity in the numbers

	Chinese Population of Burma Proper by sex.									
		Chine	ese Populat	ion.	Во	rn in China	ı.	Во	rn in Burm	a.
Year.		Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
<b>1</b> 911 1901	•••	83,762 57,780	66,669 43,960	17,093	62,178 40,216	51,783 53,808	10,395 4,408	21,584 17,564	14,886 8,152	6,698 9,412
Increase	•••	25,982	22,709	3,273	21,962	15,975.	5,987	4,020	6,734	-2,714

of the sexes is accompanied by a large degree of intermarriage between the surplus Chinese males and the women of the Burmese race. Such marriages are regarded with great favour, and in contra-distinction to the result of inter-marriage between the Burmese and the Indian races, the fusion of Chinese and Burmese strains is generally considered to be a most advantageous racial combination. A curious result of intermarriage between the Chinese, and the Burmese is that it tends to enhance the disparity of the sexes as recorded, The well-known custom by which the male children to a remarkable degree. of such marriages assume membership of the Chinese race while the female children assume membership of the Burmese race, has been the subject of frequent comment. It was mentioned in paragraph 253 of the Census Report for 1901. Curiously enough, this custom is not apparent from the statistics for 1901, from which it would appear that the number of Chinese females born in the country exceeded the number of males. This anomaly is probably due to the jealousy with which the Burmese-born Chinaman insists on his Chinese nationality, even to the extent of assuming that he was born in China, to remove any possible The figures for 1911 afford a much more correct repredoubts on the subject. sentation of a well-known fact, the number of Chinese males, born in Burma, being 14,886 as against 6,698 females. The disparity in the numbers of the sexes migrating from China to Burma is enhanced by the artificial disparity due to the males and females of identical parentage assume different racial designations.

83. Immigration of European and Allied Races.—Perhaps the question most frequently asked of the Census Superintendent of Burma in the course

	Europeans from Imperial Table XIII.									
-		Bri	tish Subjec	ts.	(European	Others.	ricans.)		Total.	
		Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1	Province Rangoon Mandalay District.	11,828 5,162 1,891	8,904 3,866 1,418	2,924 1,296 473	1,615 789 86	1,120 551 48	495 238 38	13,443 5,951 1,977	10,021 1,417 1,466	3,419 1,534 511

of the operations is concerning the number of Europeans in the province, or in Rangoon. There are two possible replies according to the information required,

The numbers of persons claiming to be European British subjects, or members of other European races, are given in full detail in Imperial Table XIII. The marginal statement gives an abstract of the figures of the province, for the City of Rangoon and for the District of Mandalay. These numbers do not

agree with those of the persons actually born in non-Asiatic countries, Europe, America, and British Dominions, which are to be obtained from Imperial Table XI. The differences between the two statements must be attributed to the number of persons born in India claiming to be Europeans. The

Persons be	orn in non-Asiat	ic countries.	)_
(Europe, Am	erica, and Britis	h Dominions.)	
-	Persons.	Males.	Females.
Province	8,998	7,552	1,446
Rangoon	4,191	3,499	
Mandalay District	1,534	1,285	249

figures are not of great statistical importance, except from the sex disparity so noticeable in all the immigrant races of the province. Their intrinsic interest,

however, entitles them to a special presentation which their absolute numbers would not justify. It is probable that the numbers of Europeans recorded as born in India are enhanced by persons of Anglo-Indian race claiming to be Europeans. It is most improbable that the number of pure Europeans within the province, who were born

	Eı	uropeans in Burma.		
		Born in Europe, America, and the Colonies.	Born in India.	Total.
Province Rangoon Mandalay	•••	8,998 4,191 1,534	4,445 1,760 443	<sup>1</sup> 3,443 5,951 <b>1,</b> 977

in India, should reach such a high proportion, approximately, one half, of the numbers born in Europe, America, and the Colonies.

- 84. Emigration from Burma.—The emigration from Burma to other parts of India is insignificant in numbers. From 1901 to 1911, it has increased from 9,460 to 10,902, an increase of 1,442 only. Over one-third of this emigration is due to the local migration between the districts on the Arakan coast and the neighbouring districts of Eastern Bengal and Assam. The next largest constituent item is an emigration to Madras, which is partly due to persons of Madras parentage born in Burma, returning with their parents to Madras. The figures of Burmese emigrants to the Andamans (omitted in 1901) give the number of convicts from Burma serving their punishment there.
- 85. General Conclusions.—The period elapsing between the Census of 1901 and that of 1911, has witnessed a remarkable change in the extent and conditions of migration in Burma. At the commencement of the period, the province was coming to the end of an era of rapid expansion. The fertile wastes of the delta had been colonised, principally by means of the surplus population of the more congested districts, and the concentration of the energies of the indigenous inhabitants in the one direction of agricultural expansion, had stimulated the immigration of large numbers of Indians to perform the increased industrial functions of an urban character, which necessarily accompanied the increased agricultural activity of the province. In 1901, so extensive was the migration due to the conditions then obtaining, that its effect on the population of the two main natural divisions was to deplete the rate of increase in the Central Basin to 9 per cent., a figure much below the natural rate of increase of births over deaths; and to enhance the rate of increase in the Deltaic Plains to 28 per cent., a figure more than double the highest possible natural rate of increase. Such a period of expansion was too intense to continue indefinitely. A reaction, or at least a retardation of the rapidity of the progress being made, was inevitable. It is difficult to state exactly when the change began to operate. It is probable that the land boom, which raged during the first few years of the decade 1901 to 1911, was the actual immediate cause of the changed conditions. It was due to the assumption that a rate of expansion, which had continued for so long, was established and would continue for an indefinite period. Prices were paid, and capital was invested in land values, on this assumption, which failed to mature. It was some years before the fact that agricultural extension had reached the limit of the stage, when fertile culturable land could be obtained for the simple cost of clearance, was generally appreciated. Nevertheless, such a stage was reached about the middle of the decade. The knowledge that the available waste land, culturable without inordinate expenses of

preparation, was rapidly coming to an end, induced a more stringent administration of the restrictions framed to prevent land from passing from the bona fide cultivator to the non-agriculturalist landlord. These various converging causes produced a culminating effect at the commencement of the latter half of the decade. The contraction of credit, initiated by the reaction following the land boom, was accelerated by the knowledge that, for the future, the land over which cultivation was being extended would not be permitted to be given as a security for the money advanced in effecting the extension. At the same time, the land available for extension at moderate cost came to an end in the majority of the Deltaic The effect on migration was considerable. The retardation of the rate of extension of cultivation in the delta stayed the migration from Upper Burma, and even induced a slight reflex action. The Upper Burman, denied the relief accruing from migration southwards, accepted the opportunities which previously he had permitted the Indian to retain. Indian migration, finding the relative advantages of Burma and the Straits Settlements changing decisively in favour of the latter, deflected itself in that direction to an increasing extent. It is only within the past few years of the decade that these tendencies have become pronounced. It is difficult to determine to what extent they are but passing phases. So far as a review of current conditions can foretell, Burma is entering on a period of steady progress in which its indigenous population will suffice for all its agricultural needs. Its rubber and mineral industries may develop beyond the possibilities of its indigenous labour supply, and may need immigrant labour to some extent. Its urban and transport industries will still require large quantities of Indian labour, though it is probable that even in these directions, the Burman, forced by the closing of other avenues, will take a progressively increasing share. It is not suggested that a time is in sight, when Burma will be independent of the Indian labour supply; but it is certain that the degree of dependence on the Indian labour supply will decline rather than advance.

## Subsidiary Table I.—Immigration (000's omitted).

	Born In																	
District and Natural Division where Enumerated.	District (or Natural Division).			Contiguous Districts of Province,		Other parts of Province.			Contiguous parts of other Provinces (Chittagong and Manipur).			Non-contiguous parts of other Provinces.			Outside India.			
	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
I.—Central Basin	4,008	1,898	2,110	33	19	14	12	8	4				53	46	7	7	6	I
Prome	356 240 404 248 300 299 344 304 293 128 270 276 432	172 117 192 119 145 141 160 143 128 62 127 135 204	184 123 212 129 155 158 184 161 165 66 143 141 228	9 7 5 20 10	5225554215192	5215443395192	6 2 1 2 4 11 1 2 1 1 1 2 3 3 7 3	4 I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I	51				6 2 2 3 4 4 18 2 2 1 1 5 5 5 2	52 2 3 3 15 2 2 I I 4 4 2	1 3 	    	3 1 	   
II.—Deltaic Plains	3,589	1,783	r,8o6	118	63	55	237	137	100	26	26		319	266	53	44	40	4
Rangoon Hanthawaddy Pegu Bassein Henzada Myaungmya Ma-ubin Pyapôn Thatôn Toungoo	91 410 378 297 400 490 257 255 143 377 265	44 203 184 147 198 238 128 124 70 189	47 207 194 150 202 252 129 131 73 188 133	23 23 35 13	2 13 12 19 7 5 13 8 12 7 16	2 10 11 16 6 4 11 7 11 5	27 41 21 59 11 23 41 26 72 8	17 25 11 33 6 12 23 15 42 50	1S 11 30 3	15 4 1	15 4  1 2  1 1		138 56 9 33 13 8 10 7 14 18	115 46 8 26 12 7 9 6 12 15	23 10 1 7 1 1 1 2 3	17 5 2 4 2 2 3 2 3 2 2	14 4 2 4 2 3 2 3 2 2	3 1
III.—Northern Hill Dis- tricts.	592	293	229	' 29	19	IO	7	4	3	1	ı	•••	15	13	2	20	14	6
Bhamo Myitkyina Katha Ruby Mines Upper Chindwin	86 64 187 81 159	42 32 91 41 78	44 32 96 40 81	3 6 5 10 7	2 4 3 6 4	1 2 4 3	5 5 3 3	3 3 2 2 1	2 2 1 1			•••	4 5 2 2 2	4 4 2 2 1	 I	8 6 1 5	5 4 1 4	3 2  I
IV.—Coast Ranges	1,403	709	694	11	7	4	5	3	2	35	32	3	38	34	4	8	7	1
Akyab  Northern Arakan  Kyaukpyu  Sandoway  Salween  Amherst  Tavoy  Mergui	328 133	248 11 87 49 23 166 66 53	234 10 95 51 21 162 67 51	 I 2	I I I 4	 1  3		  5 1	 I  I	31 	28  I  3 	3	13   1 19 1 4	11   17 17 4	2 2	1 4 I 2	I 3 I 2	  I
V.—Specially Adminis- tered Territories.	1,416	700	716	6	4	2	I	I	•••				7	7	•••	15	11	4
Northern Shan States Southern Shan States Pakôkku Hill Tracts Chin Hills	883	8	201 446 9 61		2 I 	- I	1 2 	 I	I I 	•••			3 3	3 3		10	7 4	3 1

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE II.—Emigration (000's omitted).

		Enumerated in									
District or Natural Division where born.	- 1	District Div	(or Naturision).	ral		ous Distr	ict	Other parts of Province.			
where born.		Persons.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Malcs.	Females,	Persons.	Males.	Females.	
I		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
.—Central Basin	•	4,008	1,898	2,110	187	74	63	209 18	124	<i>85</i> 8	
Pakôkku Minbu		356 240 403 248 300 299 344 304 293 128 270 276 432	172 117 192 119 145 141 160 143 128 62 127 135 204	184 123 211 129 155 158 184 161 165 66 143 141 228	25 15 7 3 10 12 11 12 6 2 12 19	138 4 2 56 7 6 4 1 6 10	7 3 5 6 4 6 2 1 6 9 6	19 29 29 21 47 27 19 26 3 3 3 <sup>2</sup> 5	10 17 15 12 30 15 11 15 2 18 2	9 12 14 9 17 12 8 11 14 3	
II.—Deltaic Plains	••	3,689	1,783	1,806	17	10	7	12	7		
Rangoon Hanthawaddy Tharrawaddy Pegu Bassein Henzada Myaungmya Ma-ubin Pyapôn Thatén		91 410 378 297 400 490 257 255 143 377 265	4+ 203 184 147 198 238 128 124 70 189	47 207 194 150 202 252 129 131 73 188 133	7 27 23 10 16 24 1 27 4 16 13	4 15 12 5 9 13 1 15 2 8	3 12 11 5 7 11  12 2 8 6	34 4 5 5 9 18 1 4 2	19 2 3 3 5 11  3 2 	15 2 2 2 4 7 1 	
III.—Northern Hill Districts	•	592	293	299	. 20	12	8	1	1	•••	
Bhamo Myitkyina Katha Ruby Mines Upper Chindwin		80 64 187 81 159	32 91 41	32 96 40	2  8 1 20	5  12	3 1 8	, 1	 	 	
IV.—Coast Ranges	••	1,403	709	694	17	.9	8	12	8	4	
Akyab Northern Arakan Kyaukpyu Sandoway Salween Amberat Tavoy Mergui	•••	482 21 182 100 44 328 133	11 87 49 23 166	95 51 21 162 67	4 3 9	5	 2 1 	2 2 ! 1 9	1  2 1  5 1	1 4	
VSpecially Administered To	erri-	1,416	3 700	718	18	10	9	13	8		
Northern Shan States Southern Shan States Paklikku Hul Tracts Chin Hills	*** ;	37 85 1	3 13	7 { 440 S _ 9	) - (	3 7 4 		; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ; ;			

North—The number of emigrants from therms to India is too small and their birth places are too pulsioner his energy is thousands for individual districts in this statement.

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE III.—Proportional Migration to and from each District.

•										
	N	umber po	er mille c	of actual po	pulation.	•	Nu		Females t s amongs	
	Imr	nigrants	•	En	nigrants.		Immig	grants.	Emi	igrants.
District and Natural Division.	Total.	From contiguous districts.	From other places,	Total.	To contiguous dis- tricts,	To other places.	From contiguous districts.	From other places.	To contiguous dis-	To other places.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
I.—Central Basin { (a) (b)	52 26	27 8	25 18	111 84	35 33	76 51	914 642	329 342	861 873	747 1,008
Prome Thayetmyo Pakôkku Minbu Magwe Mandalay Shwebo Sagaing Lower Chindwin Kyauksè Meiktila Yamèthin Mlyingyan	60 32 14 57 53 123 33 25 69 92 35 100 20	26 16 7 38 28 26 19 16 63 71 758	34 16 7 19 25 97 14 9 6 21 28 42	107 124 82 118 93 165 99 92 98 37 140 80	62 55 16 11 30 34 29 36 18 15 38 63 27	45 69 66 107 63 131 70 56 80 22 102 17 74	906 858 809 974 756 829 803 1,005 30 1,048 755 924 710	377 387 278 307 328 336 240 335 341 410 273 469 287	922 902 803 697 926 848 683 914 588 729 1,017 980 859	755 873 662 882 861 641 709 683 604 605 772 705
II.—Deltaic Plains	228	49	174	59	39	20	868	396	846	686
((b)  Rangoon  Hanthawaddy  Tharrawaddy  Pegu  Bassein  Henzada  Myaungmya  Ma-ubin  Pyapôn  Toungoo	688 239 127 307 93 79 235 166 441 95 243	88 65 50 53 84 34 17 74 52 94 28	138 623 189 74 223 59 62 161 114 347 67 149	7 310 70 68 48 58 78 8 108 40 40 60	53 61 56 32 37 35 4 94 27 40 46	3 257 9 12 16 21 43 4 14 13	879 667 789 952 883 934 902 858 803 805 802 998	430 596 324 565 517 276 558 516 525 580 270 622	857 861 862 875 838 809 856 765 822 831 939 872	768 688 591 664 726 681 391 706 718 258 490
III.—Northern Hill (a) Districts,	127	47	80	δδ	47	8	632	359	722	666
Bhamo Myitkyina Katha Ruby Mines Upper Chindwin	108 188 255 55 198 64	45 28 69 25 99 47	63 160 186 30 99	33 44 15 45 12 116	30 22  40 12 111	3 22 15 5  5	981 549 693 628 587	364 502 305 374 241 344	707 777 617 666 1,042 699	505 205 472 583 510
$ VCoast\ Ranges$ $\{(a)\}$	70	9	61 24	24	13	11	625	136	727	<i>545</i>
(6)  Akyab  Northern Arakan  Kyaukpyu  Sandoway  Salween  Amherst  Tavoy  Mergui  V.—8pecially, Ad- (a)  ministered  Territories. (b)	90 45 11 19 4.1 106 22 71 20	80 62  11 19 22 27 	28 45  22 79 22 71 17	18  31 38 22 52 29 9 28	11 21 29 26 22	7 5  10 9 22 26 7 9 15	36 969 672 666 533 666 479 657 833	161 144 363 145 90 200 192 88 152 316	723 790  585 831 751 813 512 28 714	765 431 1,066 519 1,086 765 752 803 692
N. Shan States S. Shan States Pakôkku Hill Tracts Chin Hills	41 12  8	7 1 	34 11  8	29 23 8	12 8 	17 15 	408 592 176 53	813 502 1,018 278	760 720  1,320	576 758  221

<sup>(</sup>a) The upper figures for natural divisions give the proportional migration obtained by considering each district as a separate unit in calculating migration.

<sup>(</sup>b) The lower figures for natural divisions give the proportional migration obtained by considering the natural division itself as the unit in calculating migration,

Subsidiary Table IV.—Migration between Natural Divisions compared with 1901 (000's omitted).

		Number e	numerated in Natur	al Division.	
Natural Division in which born.	I Central Basin.	II Deltaic Flains	III Northern Hill Districts.	IV Coast Ranges	V Specially Administered Territories.
	2	3	4		6
I.—Central Basin { 1911	4,00S 3,569 18	312 385 3,589 3,023	24 24 1	+ 5 9	6 5 1
III.—Northern Hill Districts {1911	20 3	1 4	592 482		•••
IV Coast Ranges { 1911	3 2	26 27		1,403 1,170	•••
V.—Specially Administered Terri- { 1911 tories.	3 6	16 <del>21</del>	10 10	3 6	1,416 1,117

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE V.-Migration between the Province and other parts of India.

·	Im	migrants to B	urma.	Emig	rants from	Burma.	Excess (+) or of Imn	Deficiency (-)
-	1911.	1501.	Variation.	1911.	1901,	Variation.	1911.	1901.
, 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Grand total	494,699	415,953	÷78,746	13,353	9,460	+1,442	+483,797	÷406,493
British territory	482,022	411,289	÷70, <b>7</b> 33	12,734	7,078	+3,215	÷471,729	+404,211
Ajmer-Merwara Andamans and Nicobars Baluchistan Bengal Eastern Bengal and Assam Bombay (including Aden) Central Provinces and Berar Coorg Madras North-West Frontier Provinces. Punjab Unived Provinces of Agra	25,595	33 36 8 8 157,454 6,487 2,133  189,828 26,206 21,550 7,554	÷ 166 + 415 + 22 -13.737 { + 6.205 - 1.585 + 557.532 - 25.466 + 4.045 + 4.045	1,719 39 1,466 3,616 632 236 2,021 29 1,550 1,426	  } 3,330 302 315  1,535 } 802 794	+ 39 +1,752 + 330 - 79 + 486 + 777 - 90	+ 199 + 451 - 9 + 66,515 + 72,120 + 12,150 + 312 + 5 +245,339 + 711 + 24,045 + 49,891	+ 33 + 36 + 8 } +151,124 + 6,185 + 1,818 + 183,293 } + 46,951 + 6,760
States and Agencies	9,713	3.385	+ 6,353	609	<i>353</i>	+ 256	+ 9,109	+ 3,012
States of Eastern Bengal and Assam.	678	1,234	- 55%	•••	•••	<b></b> ;	+ 678	+ 1,234
and Assam.  Baroda  Bengal States  Bamhay States  Central India Agency  Central Province States  Hyderahad  Kashwir  Cocker  Travantore  Hart of Modras States  Myones  North-West Fronter (Agen-	136 771 39 221 75 1573 433 53 124 744 933	1 124 240  63  	+ 135 - 771 - 85 - 19 + 365 + 365 + 53 + 134 + 704 + 431	63  .13 .185      	25      	+ 38 + 13 + 71 - 3 + 22 + 89	+ 73 + 771 + 39 + 208 + 75 + 1.390 + 433 + 53 + 102 + 704 + 660	- 24 + 124 + 240 + 544 + 05 
sure and Tollah urnash. Punjah Malen. Hajintana Agrinty Liungh Korenana Agrinty	3 505 1.782 (£3	 35 553	+ 3 + 470 + 1,227 + 633	 53 10	"" "" ""	 + 26	+ 3 + 505 + 1,727 + 688	+ 35 + 520
Joseph but Full gazed littlessens	2:5	500	÷ 345	***	***	***	+ 845	+ 500
ted in we equipped the	2,114	799	+ 1,315		2,023	-2,023	+ 2,114	1,230

#### CHAPTER IV.

#### Religion.

86. Scope of Chapter.—Nothing has occurred in the interval elapsing since the census of 1901 to change the broad general current of the religious life of the community. Its Buddhism still remains an imperfect amalgamation of the tenets of the two main schools of Buddhistic thought, the Mahayana and the Hinayana, the former introduced from Northern India and the latter from Ceylon. Although a fusion of the two branches was effected in the 11th century during the reign of Nawrata, King of Pagan, the different elements still remain as separate sects within the one religion, neither actively aggressive nor actively conciliatory towards each other. Underlying the philosophic and academic differences between the two sects, there exists a solid substratum of crude animism. For the great majority of Buddhists, their creed can still be described, in the words used by Mr. Eales in 1891, as a thin veneer of philosophy laid over the main structure of Shamanistic belief. Animism, though it forms a considerable portion of the belief of all the indigenous races of the province, is only openly professed by the minor tribes, and in the modified form of ancestor worship, by the Chinese. The Hindu and Mahomedan religions are professed principally by recent immigrants from India and their descendants, though there exist several communities of both religions who have been established in the province for many generations. Christianity continues to make progress among the Animistic tribes and races of the province, but produces little impression where Buddhism has established The adherents of all other religious beliefs are numerically insignificant in comparison with those of the five religions mentioned. The absence of any fundamental changes in the religions of the province during the past decade, renders any detailed description of their principal characteristics unnecessary. Such descriptions have been given for the indigenous religions in previous census reports and in numerous standard works of reference, official and unofficial. This chapter will therefore be confined to a purely statistical discussion of the variation and distribution of the religious population of the province of Burma as revealed by the census returns.

As religion rather than race was adopted as the primary basis of classification of the population, most of the Imperial Tables give different aspects of the distribution of population classified by religion. Imperial Tables V and VI giving the distribution of the urban and the total population by religions are the most important for the purposes of this chapter. These have been supplemented by a series of six Subsidiary Tables, three of which (I, II and VI) have been designed to show the proportional distribution and variation of the main religions, the remaining three being devoted to a presentation of the distribution and variation of the members of Christian religion and its principal sects. They are as

follows:---

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Subsidiary Table I.—General distribution of the population by religion.
Subsidiary Table II.—Distribution by Districts of the main religions.
Subsidiary Table III.—Christians. Numbers and variations.
Subsidiary Table IV.—Races and Sects of Christians. (Actual numbers.)
Subsidiary Table V.—Distribution of Christians per mille (a) races by sect and (b) sects by race.
Subsidiary Table VI.—Religions of urban and rural population.
```

87. Rates of Variation of Principal Religions since 1891.—As in every other branch of census statistics, in Burma, the comparison of the numbers of adherents of the various religions is disturbed both by changes in census limits with each successive enumeration and by the progressive efficiency of enumeration from census to census. Between 1881 and 1891, the actual figures, the provincial proportions and the rates of variation, are modified by the inclusion of the greater part of Upper Burma for the first time within the sphere of the enumeration. Between 1891 and 1901 the inclusion of the Specially Administered Territories,

and the extension of census limits in the Northern Hill Districts, from the vague and ill-defined areas of 1891 to the full district areas of 1901, caused similar

Strength of Religious of the Province.						
Religious	1311.	1501.	1891.			
Buddhist	10,384,3	79 9,184,121	6,888,250			
Animist	701		163,450			
Hinda	389,0	79 285,184	173,432			
Mahomedan	. 420,7	77 339,446	253,640			
Christian						
Sikh	· 6,6	5ევ 6,596	3,360			
Zereastrian	. 3	co : 245	; ç8			
Jew	i Ijo	02.4 6S5	351			
Jaia	ં ન	95 93	•••			
Confucian	!	71	•••			
Secularist, etc.	•	45 28	49			

disturbing modifications. In the past decade, the transfer of the estimated areas of 1901 (in the Pakôkku Hill Tracts, the Kachin Districts of North Hsenwi in the Northern Shan States, the Karenni Subdivision in the Southern Shan States, and in the Myitkyina District) to areas of nonsynchronous enumeration, and the extension of census limits into Kokang, West Manglün and the unadministered territory of the Pakôkku Hill Tracts, have made it necessary to correct the total provincial figures, before it is possible to

make an effective comparison of the variation which has occurred between 1901 and 1911. Taking the figures as recorded at the census enumerations of 1891,

Variation	of tot	pulation by rel	igion.
Religion.		lacrease	per cent.
Henry Mai.		1501-1911.	1851-1501.
Budd hist		13	33
Animist Hindu	• •	76 3 <b>6</b>	137 65
Mahomedan Christian	•••	24 42	34 22

1901 and 1911, the first marginal statements shows the actual number of adherents of each religion returned within the census limits of the province at these three dates respectively. Even as a statical presentation of the strength of the religions it is defective. In 1901 no returns of the religion of 127,011 persons within census limits were obtained; and in 1891 there were 116,493 persons whose religion could not be ascertained. But its

defects as a statical presentation of the distribution of the population by religions are of minor character compared with its defects if utilised for the purpose of comparison. The percentages of variation from year to year given in the second marginal statement are vitiated not only by the omissions to record religion throughout the census area, but also by the changes in the census areas themselves.

A closer approximation to reality can be obtained by confining the statistics to Burma Proper. But though this eliminates the Specially Administered

-				
Hetzwa,		1)11.	1901,	13-13.
Buldhar		9,273,865	3,223,071	6,358,075
Animist	**	313,613	:37,503	163,449
Himle		<u></u>	2794375	171,577
Mahamalan	***	417.575	337433	253,031
Chartman	4	insis	145.724	120,703
Seals		10,301	5-103	3,10
Zer antrare		العازي	115	. ç6
fry	***	100	645	351
Baura.	4.1	495	. 93	
Call will		- 11		
Bartis Links &	te.	4.6	23	40

Territories whence the greatest sources of disturbance arise, there still remain two disturbing factors, the non-coincidence of the census area of 1891 with Burma Proper, and the absence of complete returns by religions from small areas in the Bhamo, Myitkyina and the Upper Chindwin Districts in 1901, and from wider areas in 1891. However, as it represents for the smaller area of Burma Proper a fairly close approximation to the actual religious distribution of the population, it is worthy of presentation. The vari-

abous per cent., calculated from these figures, and represented in the final marginal statement of this paragraph, are much truer indications of the rate of increase of

Ha, where all proposed we has everybeen Laborate in Tal and the Collection Insiem per evacdetreif fent r 36+ mor 4: 4 4 5 1 5 11 ر الإعهراة الإنوطاء ii /50, ptk seps ीं मांधी 🚜 ٠, ١ 14 4 ¥ A. reseria. 4.2 \$2 mile بثلو Sec. 408 1236 223-6-4-4 100, eer 146. F \* 2

the numbers professing adherence to each religion than those calculated from the total figures returned at the various enumerations. The impossible increases of 137 and 76 per cent, for the Animist population for the two periods respectively and of 33 per cent, for the liaddhist population for the period 1891-1901, are corrected and reduced to something approaching the actual rate of variation. Those has the decade 1901-1911 may be accepted as heavy very closely approximate to the true rates

ge ware me for the people of while the extest for edge to their are commutat enhanced. By this magnifule of the Clubbing lactors already mentioned. 88. Proportionate Distribution of Different Religions since 1881:—In the inherently difficult task of attempting to measure the extent of variations of

incompletely recorded religions over progressively changing areas, the method of simple percentages of increase, even when corrected for identical areas, is open to several objections. An alternative method, by which the effect of the absence of a record of religions for a portion of the population can be eliminated, and the effect of changes of area illustrated, is to compare the percentages of the population recorded under each re-

Perce	ntage of po	pulation b	y religion.	
Religion.	1911.	1901.	1891.	1881.
Buddhist Animist Hindu Mahomedan Christian Others	85.72 5.79 3.21 3.47 1.73 .08	88.62 3.85 2.75 3.28 1.42 .08	90°53 2°21 2°28 3'33 1°59	87.01 3.84 2.36 4.52 2.25 02

ligion for each census enumeration. Before the calculation is made, the population for which no records of religion have been recorded is omitted, and the percentages show the actual proportions of the adherents of the several religions free from all disturbing errors. But though the figures in each vertical column in the marginal statement are free from error with respect to each other, each vertical column represents a calculation over a distinct and different area from that for the remaining columns. The figures for the year 1881 are for the area then known as British Burma; those for 1891 are for a vague and indefinite area including most of Upper Burma; those for 1901 are for the whole province less the estimated areas and the areas omitted from census operations for that year. Those for 1911 are for the whole province within census limits. The effect of the successive extensions of census limits on the figures for the distribution by religions can be seen by comparing the entries in the various columns. In 1891, the extension of the census area to include the predominantly Buddhist portion of Upper Burma raised the proportion of Buddhists from 87 to 90 per cent., and depressed the percentages of all the remaining religions. In 1901, the extension of the census area to include the Specially Administered Territories and the previously omitted portions of the Northern Hill Districts unduly enhanced the percentage of Animists. In 1911, the extension of the classification of religions over a number of areas peopled almost exclusively by Animistic tribes again caused the percentage of Animists to be raised to a figure considerably above that of 1901. The variations in the proportionate distribution of the population by religion from census to census, is due to changes in the census area to a greater extent than to changes in the relative numbers of the persons professing each religion.

89. Buddhism — Buddhism is the religion professed by 10,384,579 persons in Burma. Despite nominal increases of 33 per cent. and 13 per cent. in the number of its adherents for the past two decades, its proportion of the total inhabitants recorded has diminished successively from 90.53 per cent. in 1891 to 88.62 per cent. in 1901, and to 85.72 per cent. in 1911. It has been seen that both the abnormal increase of 33 per cent. from 1891 to 1901 and the successive diminutions in its proportional numbers are due largely to extensions of religious classification over wider areas at each census. A consideration of the variation for 1891-1901 over Burma Proper, reduced the increase from 33 to 19 per cent., though even the latter figure is somewhat enhanced beyond its true value by the want of absolute coincidence in the areas over which the variation is calculated.

Considering the distribution and variation within the natural divisions of the province, the Central Basin assumes priority, not only because it contains a greater

number of Buddhists than is found in any other natural division, but also on account of the high percentage the Buddhists bear to the total population. In the twenty years that have elapsed since 1891 the proportion of Buddhists has varied by a small fraction per cent. only In 1911 it was 96'02 per cent., leaving slightly less than four per cent. for the adherents of all the remaining religions. If the urban population be excluded, the percentage of Buddhists rises to 97'69 per cent. of the whole, while in certain districts an even higher percentage of Buddhism is found. Five districts

Percentage of Buddhist popula- tion in Central Basin.					
Year.		Percentage of total population.			
1831	•••	96.31			
1901		66.42			
1911		96.02			
1911 (Rural)		97.69			
1911 (Urban)	•••	79:88			

show a proportion of over 98 per cent., and two, Myingyan and the Lower Chindwin Districts, have a Buddhist population of 99 13 and 99 26 per cent. of their

total populations respectively. One cause of the maintenance of the proportion at a consistently high level is the gradual extension of the Buddhist faith among the Animist population. The immigration of Hindus and Mahomedans into this division of the province would have affected the proportions to a slightly greater extent, but for the steady additions made to the adherents of Buddhism from the members of animistic tribes. It was this transfer from Animism to Buddhism which increased the proportions of Buddhists between 1891 and 1901, despite the fact that the increase in the Buddhist population was depleted below its natural rate from 12 to 9 per cent. for the decade by extensive migration from this area to Lower Burma. The close coincidence of racial with religious divisions give the figures an important significance in connection with the future of the indigenous races of the province. During the period of rapid transition, occurring subsequent to the elimination of the consolidating influences of the existence of a national court, at a time when economic tendencies were drawing the Buddhist population from the districts of the Central Basin, and were attracting non-Buddhist inhabitants to its towns, a marked decline in the percentage of the Buddhist population of this area might have been anticipated. The maintenance of the Buddhist population at such a high proportionate level, and the recovery of the rate of increase for the decade from 9 per cent. in 1891-1901 to 12 per cent. in 1901-1911, in spite of the adverse influences which might have been expected to produce contrary results, demonstrates a religious and racial stability of an exceptionally high degree. The influences which are popularly supposed to be rapidly effecting the doom of the Burmese race, when seen in their true proportions, are found to be, for an area comprising one-third of the population of the province, of a superficial nature only.

Immigration from India has played a much greater part in affecting the proportion of Buddhist population in the districts of the Deltaic Plains, than in

Percentage of Buin the Delta	iddhis aic Pl	t population ains.
Year.		Percentage of tetal population.
1881 1891 1901 1911 1911 (Rural) 1911 (Urban)	•••	21.48 30.20 82.37 83.80 80.13

those of the Central Basin. Commencing from 1881 the percentage has declined with each successive census from 90.12 to 85.32 in 1911. The decline is relative not absolute. A reference to Subsidiary Table I will shew that concurrently with the decline in the percentage of the total population, there have been increases of 29, 22 and 12 per cent. in the actual numbers of Buddhists in this area for the three decades 1881-1891, 1891-1901 and 1901-1911, respectively. Though Buddhism increased during the first two of these three decades at a rate considerably above the natural rate of increase of population for the

province, the immigration of Hindus and Mahomedans caused increases of their numbers at still higher rates, and thereby diminished the proportionate numbers of the Buddhist population. A reference to the percentages for the urban and rural populations given on Subsidiary Table VI indicates that the relative decline has been marked in the former and but slight in the latter. The percentage of 85.32 for the year 1911 is the resultant of a percentage of 90.50 for the Buddhist population in the rural areas, and of 51'48 only for the Buddhist population in towns. Thus, although the Buddhist inhabitants of the towns in the Deltaic Plains amount to but slightly over one-half of the urban population, outside their limits the number of Buddhists is over 90 per cent. of the rural population. The additions to the number of Buddhists by migration which caused increases of 29 and 22 per cent. in past decades have now ceased, and a moderate increase of 12 per cent., closely approximating to the natural increase of births over deaths, has been recorded for the period from 1901 to 1911. This does not indicate that the proportion of Buddhists to the total population will necessarily continue to decline. The decrease in migration is apparent among Hindus and Mahomedans to an equal degree. It is probable that the percentage of Buddinst population in the rural areas will commence to increase gradually, while even in towns the decline in the proportion of Buddhists has apparently approached its limit.

The progressive decline in the percentage of the Buddhist population in the Coast Ranges from 1881 to 1901 has ceased and a slight movement in a contrary direction has asserted itself in the decade 1901 to 1911. This is due principally to two causes, the extension of Buddhism among the animistic tribes of the Salacen and the Northern Arakan Districts, and the diminution of the Hindu population of the Amberst District. There are many reasons for the low

auddinsM. 93

percentage of Buddhists as compared with the percentages for the Central Basin and the Deltaic Plains. Both Akyah and Mergui Districts contain large indigenous Mahomedan populations, and proximity to the sea has induced a comparatively

large Indian immigration especially into the ports of Akyab, Moulmein and Mergui. The apparent diminution of the Buddhist population by 3:per cent. from 1891 to 1901 is due to a readjustment of district boundaries which affected the area of the Amherst and Thaton Districts in the interval. It has not been possible to adjust the population for the changed boundaries.

The recorded proportions of Buddhists to total population in the Northern Hill Districts and the Specially Administered Territories for the year 1901 have but little relation to reality. They are the

effecting a census enumeration. The percentages for 1911 can claim a nearer approach to reality though they are still the result of a record over incomplete areas, and of an assumption that the population of the estimated areas are composed entirely of Animists. The low proportions of Buddhists are due to the large number of animistic races within the areas of these two natural divisions. Only the Katha and Ruby Mines Districts, with percentages of 9543 and 9002 per cent. respectively, can compare with the districts of the Central Basin in the strength of their Buddhist popu-

Percentage of Br in the Co	addhiy Sast R.	t population anges.
Year.		Percentage of total population.
1881 1891 1901 1911 1911 (Rural) 1911 (Urban)	•••	78'02 76'99 73'74 73'99 75'93 54'70

proportions existing over an artificial area determined by the possibilities of

Percentage of Northern Hi Admi	of Buddhist p Il Districts as mistered Terr	nd Specially
Year.	11:11	Specially Administered Territories.
1911	84°41 77′92	84.77 73.80

A general review of the distribution of the Buddhist population, and a more detailed investigation of the rate of increase for the past decade, the only one free

from disturbing changes of area, demonstrates that there is an extremely steady increase at a rate slightly exceeding the natural rate of the increase of population. In the main portion of the province comprised within the Central Basin and the Deltaic Plains, where Buddhism is the religion professed by 96 and 85 per cent, of the population respectively, the rates of increase are approximately equal; but whereas in the Central Basin the percentage to the total population has been maintained at an extremely high level, in the Deltaic Plains, it has been progressively reduced

lations.

Increws per cent, in Buddhist	population.
Area.	Percentage.
Province	13 12 12 12 13 10

by an immigration of Hindus in sufficient strength to appreciably modify the proportionate distribution. In the three natural divisions comprising the outlying portions of the province, the percentage of Buddhist population is much lower than in the two central divisions. But the rate of increase is somewhat above the natural rate, representing the tendency of Buddhism to absorb the members of the animistic races who are brought within its sphere of influence. Neither the immigration of Hindu and Mahomedan races in large numbers into the province nor the efforts of Christian missionaries, have produced any appreciable effect on Though its percentage the steady progress of Buddhism and its rate of advance. of increase is less than that of any of the remaining four religions, the actual increase in the number of its adherents is greater than that of all the remaining religions in the province combined. And though its proportion to the total population has slowly declined through extensions of area and the immigration of non-Buddhists, it still continues to be the religion of over 85 per cent. of the total inhabitants of the province.

90. Animism.—Animism, or spirit worship, is in one respect the universal religion of the indigenous races of Burma The acceptance of the Buddhist faith by no means involves a cessation of belief in the existence of nats or spirits, or of the performance of the rites and ceremonies in their honour. The statistics recorded for Buddhists and Animists in the census returns merely differentiate between those Animists who have added to their belief a more or less thorough assimilation of the tenets of Buddhistic faith and philosophy, and those Animists

who have not made such an addition. Mr. Lowis in describing the Buddhism of the Burman writes:—

"Animism supplies the solid constituents that hold the faith together, Buddhism the superficial polish. Far be it from me to underrate the value of that philosophic veneer. It has done all that a polish can do to smooth, to beautify, and to brighten, but to the end of time it will never be anything more than a polish. In the hour of great heart-searchings, it is profitless as the Apostle's sounding brass. It is then that the Burman falls back upon his primæval beliefs. Let but the veneer be scratched, the crude animism that lurks must out. Let but his inmost vital depths be touched, the Burman stands forth an Animist confessed."

This toleration of primitive beliefs not inherent in the teaching of Buddha is the principal cause of ready assimilation of Buddhism by the members of the animist races of the province. No recantation of their existing beliefs is necessary. All that is required is the acceptance of a few positive precepts which do not actively proscribe what has been previously believed. It follows that there is but a broad vague indefinite line of demarcation between the two categories, Buddhism and Animism. They shade off gradually into each other, the superficial

veneer of Buddhism existing in many degrees of attenuation.

The religion given by the majority of the Chinese in the province is ancestor-worship, or as it is translated in the vernacular, nat-worship or animism. A few (71) Chinese gave Confucianism as their religion, and there were small numbers of Chinese Buddhists, Mahomedans and Christians, but animism is the correct designation to apply to a belief implying the existence of a spirit world peopled with beings producing human characteristics and emotions in an intensified degree. The inclusion of the Chinese population among the Animists introduces into this religious group an element of heterogeneity. It includes on the one hand, the primitive tribes, too backward and uncivilised to have accepted Buddhism, and on the other hand, the representatives of the oldest existing civilisation in the world.

A statistical analysis of the Animist population of the province is a matter of considerable difficulty. Even considering the variation for the past decade

Animist population, 1901-1911.						
Area.	Population. Incr		Incre	ase. '		
Area.	1911.	1901.	Actual.	Per cent.		
Province Central Basin Deltaic Plains Northern Hill Districts. Coast Ranges Specially Administered Territories.	701,473 38,670 59,640 120,354 109,949 372,860	399,390 36,465 35,626 66,352 99,065 161,882	302,083 2,205 24,014 54,002 10,884 210,978	76 · 6 67 81 11		

only, it is necessary to make allowance for the extension of census limits to include Kokang, West Manglun and the unadministered area of the Pakôkku Hill Tracts, and for the absence of any religious classification in 1901 in the administered area of the Pakôkku Hill Tracts, in the Kachin Districts of North Hsenwi, in Karenni, and in the estimated portions of the Upper

Chindwin, Bhamo, and Myitkyina Districts. It is possible to correct the figures obtained from the census returns so that these disturbances shall be eliminated,

Corrected Returns of Animists, 1901-1911.						
	Population. Increa		ise.			
Area.	1911.	1901.	Actual.	Per cent.		
Province Central Basin Deltaic Plains Northern Hill Districts. Coast Ranges Specially Administered Territories.	528,845 38,670 59,640 110,658 109,949 209,928	399,390 36,465 35,626 66,352 99,065 161,882	29,455 2,205 24,014 44,306 10,884 48,046	32 6 67 67 11 30		

but to carry the corrections back for previous years would entail a large amount of labour with but little profit. The effect of the corrections is to reduce the variations in the Northern Hill Districts and the Specially Administered Territories from 81 and 130 per cent. to 67 and 30 per cent., respectively, and to reduce the provincial rate of increase from 76 to 32 per cent. But

even these figures are open to suspicion. It is among the Animist tribes in the north of the province and in the remote portions of nearly every district in the province, that errors of enumeration are most likely to occur, and though improved and closer administration in such areas has now resulted in better enumeration, previous errors are still a source of disturbance in comparisons of

rates of variation. The increases of 6 and 11 per cent. in the Central Basin and the Deltaic Plains can be accepted as being a true representation of the probable rate of increase. The increases of 67 and 30 per

cent. in the Northern Hill Districts and the Specially Administered Territories are due, partly to under-enumeration in 1901, and partly to immigration from Chinese territory, or from the unadministered areas within British territory, as well as to natural increase. The increase of 67 per cent. for the Deltaic Plains is due principally to the immigration of Chinese.

In 1881, the Animist population formed 3.84 per cent. of the total population of British Burma. In 1891, the extension of census limits over Upper Burma (excluding the localities

where the Animist population resided) led to a reduction to 2.21 per cent. Successive extensions of census limits to areas where Animists form large portions of the population, have resulted in increases in the proportion of the Animist population to the total population of the census area of the province to 3.85 and 5.79 respec-The percentage of 5.79 is the resultant of widely varying percentages in different portions of the province ranging from '94 per cent. in the Central Basin to 24'78 per cent. in the Specially Administered Territories. The percentage rises to 99'73 in the Pakôkku Hill Tracts, 98'16 per cent. in the Chin Hills and 89'15 per cent.

in the Northern Arakan District, while in Kyauksè and Lower Chindwin Districts,

it falls to 'o1 and 'o2 per cent. respectively.

	Proportions of Animist population.				
	Year.	Percentage of total population.			
	1881 1891	5.79 3.85 2.21 3.84			
Per	centage of A	imist to			

Percentage of Animist to total population.				
Area.	Percentage.			
Province Central Basin Deltaic Plains Northern Hill Districts. Coast Ranges Specially Administered Territories.	5'79 '94 1'37 18'16 7'33 24'78			

91. Hinduism.—The numbers of the Hindu population of Burma are less affected by changes in the census area than those of the Buddhist and Animist

It is true that the ininhabitants. crease in the proportion of Hindus to the total population is modified by the inclusion of fresh areas containing no Hindu inhabitants, but the actual variations in their numbers can be accepted without The inintricate corrections. crease in the number of Hindus (104,195) for the period 1901-1911

Hindu population.						
		Percentage	Incres	15e.		
Year.	Population.	of total population.	Actual.	Per cent.		
1891 1911	173,432 285,484 389,679	2.28 2.75 3.12	112,052 104,195	 65 36		

is slightly less than the increase in the previous decade, but on the increased numbers the percentage of variation has decreased considerably, being 36 only,

as against a previous increase of 65 per cent. The increase is a compound of three factors, immigration, increase of births over deaths for the Hindu population of the country, and the children of mixed marriages of Hindus with women of Burmese race. The first is the most important factor numerically, the bulk of the immigrants into the province from India being Hindus. As to the natural increase of the Hindu population actually resident within the country, it is exceedingly small

Hindus in Burma, 1901.		
Males Females	236,930 48,544	
Disparity	188,386	

owing to the large disparity between the male and female population, and it is a matter of doubt whether the births would exceed the deaths. However, the excess of males to the extent to which they have intermarried with the Burmese is being separately considered. Excluding these, as there is a high proportion of married women among the Hindu females in the province there is probably a fair rate of natural increase in the Hindu community which has not intermarried with the Burmese. As to the part played in the increase in the number of Hindus by the marriage of the surplus Hindu males with women of Burmese race, it is extremely difficult to form an estimate. the children of such unions are brought up as Burmans and as members of the Buddhist religion. A small minority are brought up strictly as Hindus in the full sense of the term, fulfilling the three requirements necessary to constitute a true member of the Hindu community, namely, membership of a recognised Hindu caste, acknowledgment of the supremacy of the Brahmans, and veneration of the cow. But intermediate between these two classes of persons

born of mixed Hindu and Burmese marriages, there is a large and indefinite number of persons who can only be defined by the contradictory term, "Casteless

Hindus giving no record of caste.		
Year.	Numbers.	
1901	5 <sup>8</sup> ,073 99,707	

Hindus." The general disintegration of caste in Burma renders such an anomaly possible. Membership of a caste is not essential for the social life of a Hindu, as in India. The large increase in the numbers of Hindus returned as being unable to claim membership of any caste is due partly to the increase in the number of persons of mixed race who have not been brought up as Buddhists, nor as strict Hindus, but have adopted generally Hindu modes of life. In the second generation of this class of Hindus,

owing to the small number of females and to familiarity with the people and customs of the country, intermarriage with the Burmese is common, and there is a great probability of their children assuming Burmese race and professing the Buddhist religion. It would be impossible to obtain a quantitative analysis of the portion of the increase of 104,195 Hindus between 1901 and 1911 due to each of the three contributaries, immigration, natural increase among the Hindu population, and the adoption of Hinduism by the children of mixed parentages. The first is a declining factor at the present moment, the second is a small but increasing factor, and the third is probably increasing with the excess of the Hindu male population.

The distribution of the Hindu population throughout the province is very uneven. About 70 per cent. is to be found in the Deltaic Plains where it forms

Distribution of Hindu population.				
Area.	Actual numbers, 1911.	Percentage of total population.	Increase per cent., 1901-1911.	
Province Central Basin Deltaic Plains Northern Hill Districts Coast Ranges Specially Administered Territories.	389,679 44,022 280,374 13,5;8 44,344 7,391	3'21 1'07 6'47 2'04 2'95 '49	36 50 41 41 5 34	

6.47 per cent. of the total population. The greatest degree of concentration is to be found in Rangoon where the Hindu community now considerably exceeds the Buddhist community in point of numbers. Generally the percentage of Hindus to the total population varies inversely with the distance from Rangoon, amounting to 10.60 per cent. in the surrounding district of Hanthawaddy, and 8 per cent. in Pegu

to 1'24 per cent. in Henzada. In small the Coast Ranges, with a percentage of Hindus amounting to 2'95 of the total population, the distribution is equally varied, ranging from 6'49 per cent. in Amherst District to 32 per cent. in Kyaukpyu. The low percentage of increase of 5 per cent. between 1901 and 1911 is due to a stationary Hindu population in Akyab District and to actual decreases in the Amherst and Sandoway Districts. In the Central Basin, the number of Hindus (44,022) amounts to only 1'07 of the total population. More than a third of the Hindus in this division are to be found in the Mandalay District.

An alternative method of measuring the distribution of the Hindu population in Burma is by utilising the distinction between urban and rural areas. The unevenness of the distribution when considered territorially is largely due to the fact that it is determined by industrial and occupational considerations, rather than by a gradual dispersion of the Hindu immigrants over the province. The marginal statement below illustrates the several aspects of the distribution of the Hindu population considered from the criterion of residence in town or country. The element of comparative uniformity is to be found in the column showing the percentage of the total Hindu population which resides in towns. The variation of such percentage is narrow, ranging from 42.45 per cent. to 58.39 per cent. in the four natural divisions having urban areas with a general percentage for the province This suggests that however irregular may be the distribution of the Hindu population over the different parts of the province, there is a general tendency for it to be divided into two approximately equal portions resident in town and country, respectively. Another method of presenting the fact, of the undue congregation of the Hindu community in towns is that 1840 per cent. of the total urban population are Hindus, as against 166 per cent. of the total rural population for the Hindus resident in rural areas.

It is worthy to note in connection with the question of the distribution of the Hindu population in Burma that the members of the Hindu community of Rangoon are greater than those of any other religious community in that town. In 1901 the number of Buddhists slightly exceeded the number of Hindus, and

formed they 35.60 and 35.33 per cent. respecof its tively total population. The balance has now moved decisively in favour of the Hindus who now out-number the Buddhists by 10,883 and comprise 36'94 per cent. of the total population 33'23 per cent.

Urb	in and Rural	distribution o	of Hindu popul	ation.	
,	` Actual p	opulation.	Percentage of		
Area.	Urban.	Rural.	Urban Hindu to total Hindu population.	Urban Hindu to total Urban population.	Rural Hindu to total Rural population
Province Central Basin Deltaic Plains Northern Hill Districts.	3.75	182,078 18,317 129,817 7,796	53 <sup>2</sup> 7 58 <sup>3</sup> 9 53 <sup>7</sup> 0 4 <sup>2</sup> 45	18:40 6:74 26:19 19:12	1.53 3.40 1.66
Specially Adminis- tered Territories	25,587 	18,757 7,391	5770	18.00	1.37 .49

attained by the Buddhist community. It is the relative diminution of the Buddhist community in Rangoon from 50.03 per cent. to 33.23 per cent. within the past 30

years, during which time the Hindus have increased from 26.74 to 36.94 per cent. of the whole, that has given rise to the theory that the Burmese race is doomed to early extinction by being submerged by the mass of Indian immigration. This theory ignores the fact that the members of the Buddhist races have during that period found outlets for their increasing population in directions

Compari-on	of Bu	ddhist and I	lindu popi	ulations of F	Rangoos.
Religior		Popula	tion.	Percentag popul:	
Kengio:	<b></b>	1911.	1901.	1911.	1901.
Buddhist Hindu	***	97,467	83,631 82,994	36.01 32.53	35 <sup>.</sup> 60

far more lucrative, and far more congenial to their temperament, than would have been provided by their concentration in large numbers in Rangoon. The Bud-

dhist races have been extending the cultivation of the province, while the Hindus have been concerned rather with the collection, transformation and export of its crops. It is to this racial division of labour that the comparative decline of the indigenous races of Burma in its principal city must be attributed. The assumption that it is typical of provincial conditions, or that it is capable of indefinite continuation, is contrary to experience, to all records of the population, and to the probabilities of the future development of the province.

Percentage of total population of Rangoon.				
Year.	Buddhists.	Hindus.		
1831 1891 1901	50°03 44°28 35°60 33°23	26.7.4 32.08 35.33 36.94		

Although the percentages of increase of 65 per cent. and 36 per cent. in the numbers of Hindus in the province are indicative of high though declining rates of

increase, the absolute numbers concerned are so small that they make but a slight difference in the proportions of Hindus for the whole province. Between 1881 and 1891 the decline in the proportion of Hindus to the total population was due to the addition of Upper Burma to the census area. In the past two decades the increase has been from 2.28 per cent. to 3.21 per cent., if measured over the whole census area, or to 3.63 per cent., if the disturbance of changing areas is eliminated by reckoning the proportion

Percentage of Hindus to total population,					
Year.	Census Area.	Burma Proper.			
1881 1891 1901 1911 (Rural) 1911 (Urban)	2°36 2°28 2°75 3°21 1°66 18°40	3.63 3.63 1.84 18.40			

over Burma Proper only. Whether the higher or the lower percentage be taken, the extent of Hinduism in Burma is very slight in comparison with the numbers of the total population. Its actual significance is even slighter than its numbers would indicate. The 389,679 Hindus, even if forming a homogeneous and aggressive body, strict in their caste observances and conservative in their modes and customs of life, forming as they do less than four per cent. of the total population, would have but little effect on the national life of the province. But there are no indications whatever that they are capable of making the most of

their small numbers. Their caste system is in a state of disintegration. More than a quarter of their numbers are casteless, to use a term which describes their condition better than the term "outcast." They are without a caste, not because they have been excluded from participation in the benefits of a caste organisation, but because caste has ceased to be a necessary portion of their social and economic equipment. If membership of a caste be considered as an essential condition of inclusion in the term Hindu, then large numbers returned as Hindus in Burma, are Hindus in name only. Indeed, the majority of the Hindus in the province are ripe

. Hindasis	Burm	3, 1)11.
Males Females	•••	366,760 75,588
Disparity	***	231,112

for absorption by the indigenous Buddhist races. The process is continually in operation, but it is being continually obscured by the large amount of immigration from India. It is not only the casteless portion of the Hindu community which is being assimilated. The excess males, numbering 231,112, are either temporary immigrants or are likely to intermarry with women of Burmese race. In the former case, they do not add to the permanent strength of the Hindu community, and in the latter case, though they may retain their cutward adherence to Hinduism, the process of

absorption, which may take two or three generations to complete, has already commenced. The continuance of Hinduism in Burma on any but the most limited scale is dependent on a high rate of immigration into the province. has been seen that during the past few years, the flow of Indian immigration, or rather, the net gain to the province by immigration, has been reduced. Should any development occur by which the amount of immigration should continue to be reduced appreciably, the Hindu community in Burma is not established on a sufficiently stable basis to resist absorption by the Buddhist races. Buddhism arose as a protest against the Brahmanic system of caste, and experience in Burma demonstrates that it operates as a disintegrating influence on the caste of the members of the Hindu community settled in the province. But for the fact that Hinduism has in the past received constant additions to its strength from India, the processes of disintegration and absorption would have proceeded at a more rapid pace. Even fortified by immigration, Hinduism remains a passive rather than an active force in the province. Its numerical strength is far in excess of the real amount of vitality it possesses. Many of its members are Hindus in name only, some having no caste at all, and others claiming castes to which they are not entitled. "Hindu" in Burma is a general term used to denote those persons of Indian birth and parentage who do not belong to other religions, rather than to describe a person holding membership of a recognised caste. It is a negative, or a remainder category, comprising numerous elements not actively belonging to it, except in the negative sense that they can be more easily entered under the designation "Hindu" than under any other term of classification. As such its influence and importance are not proportionate to its numbers.

of the increase, it is certain that natural increase among the Mahomedans themselves and intermarriage with the Burmese have far more effect on the variation

than is the case with the Hindus. Natural increase by the excess of births over death is greater because the disparity of the sexes is less. In 1901, there were 119,347 Mahomedan females in Burma compared with 48,544 Hindu females at that date, and the natural increase must necessarily have been greater among

	Mahomedan population.							
			Percentage	Incr	ease.			
Yea	ır.	Population.	of total population.	Actual.	Per cent.			
1901 1901	•••	253,640 339,446 4 <sup>20</sup> ,777	3°33 3°28 3°47	85,8o6 81,331	34 24			

the Mahomedans, especially as they form a rural and an indigenous population to a greater extent than the Hindus. As for intermarriage with the Burmese, the greater

excess of Hindu males giving opportunities for a larger degree of intermarriage, would suggest that of the increases of Hindu and Mahomedan populations by this contributory, that for the Hindus would be the greater. But this a priori deduction needs to be discounted by two facts. The first is that a very large proportion of the excess of Hindu males consists of temporary immigrants,

Mahomedans in Burma.					
Sex.	1901.	1911.			
Males Females	220,099 119,347	271,428 · 149,349			
Disparity	100,752	122,079			

who do not intermarry and do not contribute to the increase of population. The second is that of the children of such intermarriages, those of Mahomedan and

Burmese parentage with very few exceptions go to increase the numbers of Mahomedans, while only a minority of those of Hindu and Burmese parentage are to be counted as Hindus.

Over 52 per cent. of the Mahomedan inhabitants of Burma dwell in the districts of the Coast Ranges where they form 1472 per cent. of the total

 Year.
 Number.
 Increase.

 1901
 ...
 20,423
 ...

 1911
 ...
 59,729
 39,366

Zerbadis in Burma.

population. This high percentage is principally due to the number of Mahomedans in Akyab (186,323) where they comprise 33.66 per cent. or over one-third of

the population of the district. Indeed, in this one district, 44 per cent. of the Mahomedans of the province are congregated. Mergui and Amherst Districts also show the comparatively high proportions of 8.81 and 6.22 per cent. of their total population as being Mahomedans. In the Deltaic Plains, only Rangoon, with 18.62 per cent. of its

Distribution of	Mahomedan p	opulation.		
Area.	Actual numbers, 1911.	Percentage of total population.	Increase per cent., 1901-11.	
Province Central Basin Deltaic Plains Northern Hill Districts Coast Ranges Specially Administered Territories.	420,777 61,927 127,043 7,575 221,010 3,202	3'47 1'51 2'93 1'14 14'72	24 26 37 30 17 35	

population returned as Mahomedan, rises above the provincial percentage of 3'47. In the Central Basin, the two districts of Mandalay and Yamethin contribute half

the Mahomedan population of the whole division. The increase in the Mahomedan population varies from 17 per cent. in the Coast Ranges to 37 per cent. in the Deltaic Plains, with a provincial increase of 24 per cent. This is about double the natural rate of increase. However, it is difficult to use the term natural rate of increase with respect to a population comprising a large excess of males, who intermarry readily with the women of another community. It is possible by utilising the statistics of the Zerbadi

Actual variation in Mahomedan population, 1901-1911.				
Increase of Zer- badis. Remaining in- crease.	39,306 42,025			
Total increase	81,331			

community to demonstrate the large effect produced by intermarriage with the Burmese, on the increase of the Mahomedan population. It is responsible for nearly a half of the total increase for the decade 1901—1911. The remaining increase must be distributed between immigration, and the natural increase of the Mahomedan population not affected by intermarriage. It is impossible to estimate their respective proportions, but it is obvious that compared with the part played by immigration in the increase of the Hindu population, it occupies but a subordinate place in the increase of the Mahomedans of the province.

In considering the distribution of the Mahomedan population between urban and rural areas, it is necessary to consider separately the figures for the province when Akyab district is included, and when it is omitted. The effect of its large

Mahomedan rural population is so great, that, if included, the rural exceeds the urban population, the latter being only 35 15 per cent. of the total Mahomedan

Urban a	nd Rural dist	ribution of M	ahomedan po	pulation.	
	Actual po	pulation.		Percentage of	
. Area.	Urban,	Rural.	Urban to total Maho- medan population.	Urban Ma- homedan to total Urban population,	Rural Maho- medan to total Rural population.
Province Province (Akyab excluded).	147,907 132,376	<b>272,870</b> 94,489	35.12 28.32	13.11	2 48
Central Basin Deltaic Plains Northern Hill Districts.	33,669 80,138 3,348	28,258 46,905 4,247	.80 19.02 8.00	11,13 13,00 8.84	73 1°24 °66
Coast Ranges Specially Adminis- tered Territories	30,752 	190,258 3,202	7.31	21.73	,51 11,00

community. excluded, the urban population is the greater being 58 35 per of cent. the whole. Apart from Akyab district, the Mahomedans dwelling in rural areas do not even amount to one per cent. the total rural population,

but if Akyab be included the percentage rises to 248.

93. Comparison of Hindu and Mahomedan Populations.—In his Census Report for 1901, Mr. Lowis makes the following comments on the respective rates of increase of the Hindu and Mahomedan communities in Burma:—

"The Hindus have increased within the past ten years at the rate of no less than 63 per cent., and of every ten thousand persons inhabiting Burma Proper, 303 on an average now profess the Hindu faith. The rise of 63 per cent. is lower than that which took place during the preceding decade (77 per cent.), and when compared with the 1872—81 figures (140 per cent.), dwindles into comparative insignificance. As it is, however, it is nearly double the Mahomedan rate of growth during the same decade. Everything points to the fact that the Hindus are gradually asserting their vast numerical superiority, and that, when their prejudices against sea voyages have been overcome, they are bound to outstrip all other competitors. In 1872 the number of Musalmans in British Burma was nearly three times as great as that of Hindus. Year by year during the past thirty years the disparity has been reduced; Census after Census has shown that the Hindus were creeping up. They are still behind the Mahomedans in number, and, so far as one can judge at this

Hindus and Mahomedans in Burma.								
•		Hino	dus.	Mahon	edans.	Excess of		
Year	r. 	Numbers.	Increase.	Numbers.	Increase.	Maho- medans.		
1911 1901 1891	•••	173,43 <sup>2</sup> 285,484 389,679	112,052 104,195	253,640 339,446 420,777	85,806 81,331	80,208 53,962 31,098		

stage, they are not likely to have passed them even at the next decennial enumeration, but there seems to be no question that, unless the resources of the country first give out, they will in the end out number them."

The marginal statement indicates that the same tendencies noted by Mr. Lowis are operating,

though with reduced intensity. The Hindu and Mahomedan populations are both increasing at a slower rate than formerly, but the Hindu increase still maintains its lead both absolutely and relatively. It has diminished the superiority of the numbers of Mahomedans, but is still 31,098 behind. It is at present highly questionable whether the same tendencies will continue for the ensuing decade. The changes in migration observable during the past few years, if continued, will affect the Hindu population adversely to a much greater extent than the Mahomedan population is likely to be affected. The Hindu community is less firmly established. Its increase is more dependent on a continuation of a highly abnormal distribution of population which is rapidly being modified. It is more liable to adverse external influences and to internal disintegration. Now that the era of rapid transition succeeding the annexation of Upper Burma has closed, and a period of more steady progress set in, it is probable that the rate of increase of the adherents of the two religions will tend to approximate, and even that the Mahomedans may increase at a more rapid rate than the Hindus. Unless conditions change, it is not probable that the Hindus will be equal to the Mahomedans in numbers by the date of the next census.

94. Christianity.—The number of Christians in Burma on the date of the census was 210,081, an increase of 42 per cent. on the number returned in 1901. This rate of increase is nearly double of the rate of increase for the previous decade.

If allowance be made for the variations of census area, the rates of increase for the two period are almost exactly in the ratio of two to one, being approximately 42

and 21 per cent.

respectively. There have been abnormally large rates of increase in the Northern Hill Districts and in the Specially Administered Territories, but these do not represent large actual increases. In 1901, Christianity was

	Strength of	Christianity i	in Burma.		
Area.	Actual numbers.	Percentage popula		Increase	per cent.
	1911.	1911.	1901.	1901-1911.	1891-1901.
Whole Province Central Basin Deltaic Plains Northern Hill Districts. Coast Ranges Specially Administered Territories.	210,081 16,593 165,069 3,105 14,913 10,401	1.73 .40 3.81 .47	1,42 ,33 3,26 ,28	+ 42 + 37 + 35 + 104 + 46 + 478	+ 22 + 26 + 23 

the creed of a very small proportion of the inhabitants of these natural divisions, and the large percentages are to be considered merely as indications of favourable progress over new ground. In the older and more settled natural divisions, the rate of increase ranges from 35 per cent in the Deltaic Plains to 46 per cent. in the Coast Ranges. Nearly 79 per cent. of the Christians in the province are to be found in the districts of the natural division termed the Deltaic Plains. This is the only natural division where the number of Christians exceeds one per cent. of

the total population, though in a few districts of the other divisions this percentage is exceeded. The percentage of 3.81 for the Deltaic Plains is the resultant of variations in distribution from 9.44 per cent. of the total population in Toungoo to 89 per cent. in Thatôn. In Rangoon, the percentage is 7.86, and Bassein comes next with 6.33 per cent. But little impression has been made by missionary effort on the compact solid-Buddhism of the Central Basin. It is among the Animistic races of the Northern Hill Districts and the Specially Administered Territories, that the most promising field for the spread of Christian doctrine is to be found, and where missionary activity is being increasingly exerted.

Christians I	y Race	·
Race.	ŕ	Number.
European and allied Anglo-Indians Indian Christians Karens Burmese Shans Talaings Kachins Chinese Arakanese		13,443 11,106 23,089 130,271 17,446 9,630 1,911 1,867 424
Chins Race net returned		220 453
Total		210,081

Of the indigenous races of the province, the Karens have accepted the teachings of Christianity most readily. The number of Karen Christians is 130,271, which is slightly under 12 per cent. of the total Karen population. They form about 62 per cent. of the total number of Christians.

Burmese come next with 17,666 Christian converts, a disproportionately small result for the amount of attention and energy spent Burmese missions. Greater success is being obtained among the Talaings Shans, Kachins where comparatively new fields of missionary enterprise are being opened out. There are 23,089 Indian Christians, the majority of whom are immigrants from Madras.

The denominational distribution of the 13,443

Distribution of Europe	in and Anglo	-Indian popula	ation by se	ct.
	Euro	peans.	Anglo	Indians.
Sect.	Actual.	Per cent. of total.	Actual.	Per cent. of total.
Anglican	7,022	52,3	3,713	33'5
Armenian	241	1.8	13	1
Baptist	759	5'6	957	8.6
Congregationalist	1	•••		•••
Greek	47	.4	•••	•••
Lutheran	69	.6	2	••• ``
Methodist	281	2.1	215	2.0
Presbyterian	875	6.2	67	•6
Minor Protestant Deno-	18	ı,	24	.3
minations.		_		
Protestant (Unspecified)	311	2.3	113	1.0
Roman Catholic	3,594	26.7	5,918	53'3
Sect not returned	163	1,5	70	•6
I to Carte Dallada	62	•5	1.1	•1
Indefinite Bellets			-4	
Total	13,443	100.00	11,106	100,00

persons of European and allied races, and of the 11,106 Anglo-Indians, differs widely from the proportionate distribution by denominations of the whole Christian community. Among the Europeans, the Anglicans come first with 7,022 adherents or 52'2 per cent. of the whole, the Roman Catholics following with 3,594 or 26'7

per cent. Next in order come the Presbyterians with 875 or 6.5 per cent., while the Baptists, the largest community in point of numbers in the province, is fourth with 759 or 5.6 per cent. Among Anglo-Indians, the order is modified, the Roman Catholics claiming 5,918 adherents or 53.3 per cent., the Anglicans coming second with 3,713 or 33.5 per cent., and the Baptists third with 957 or 8.6 per cent. The number of members of the remaining denominations are numerically small, both for Europeans and Anglo-Indians.

95. Christian Denominations.—Nearly 97 per cent. of the Christians of the province belong to three main denominations, the Baptist with 58 per cent.,

Strength of Cl	ristian De	nomination	S.
Sect.	1911.	1901.	Increase or Decrease.
Baptist Roman Catholic Anglican Communion. Methodist Presbyterian Lutheran Armenian Greek Minor Protestant Denominations. Congregationalist Protestant Protestant Sect not returned Indefinite Beliefs	122,265 60,282 20,734 1,675 1,009 328 256 49 49 49 52,782 581 66	66,860 37,105 22,307 1,238 620 399 256 70 18	+55,405 +23,177 -1,573 +437 +328 -71  -21 +1 +5 +2,782 -18,041 +66
Total	210,081	147 525	62,556

the Roman Catholic with 29 per cent., and the Anglican with nearly 10 per cent. of the total. It is satisfactory to note that the efforts of the ministers of religion to secure more definite entries of the exact denomination of the adherents to their faith have resulted in a large diminution in the numbers of doubtful or unspecified entries. In 1901, these amounted to 18,622 entries, even after the Census Superintendent was able to infer from the locality of enumeration what the sect of native Christians probably was, and to show the persons concerned, accordingly. At the census of 1901, the unspecified Christians numbered but 3,363, of whom 2,782 returned

themselves as Protestants. With the exception of the three denominations already mentioned, no sect mustered as many as 2,000 adherents, and two only, the Methodists and the Presbyterians numbered more than one thousand. It is important to note with reference to the exceptionally large increase recorded for the Baptist community that Mr. Lowis was of opinion that the bulk of the Christians whose denominations were not returned in 1901 must have been Baptists. The diminution in the numbers of the Anglican community is difficult to reconcile with the decisive advances made by the two other main Christian denominations of the province. It will be considered in greater detail when the numbers of each separate denomination are being separately treated. The sects recorded, which have been entered under the head Minor Protestant Denominations, are Plymouth Brethren, Reformed Church, Swedenborgian, Church of Christ, Christian Scientist, Church of Jerusalem, Seventh Day Adventist, and Bible Christian.

96. The Baptist Community.—The remarkable advance in the recorded figures of the Baptist community for the past decade is due to some extent to an

Baptist in Burmas.			
Year.	Numbers.		
1911	122,265 66,860		
Increase	55,405		

underestimate of the figures for 1901. From the figures it would appear that out of the total increase of 62,556 in the number of Christians, 55,405 or 88 per cent. of the increase was due to Baptists alone. It is probable, however, that the great majority of the 18,622 Christians who were recorded in 1901 without the sect being specified were Baptists. Even allowing for this and reducing the degree of increase by a more correct estimate of the numbers in 1901, the Baptist com-

munity would still be marked out as not only the most numerous but also the most progressive of the Christian denominations in Burma. This is to be attributed to the energy and activity of its missionary enterprise. It has 185 missionaries, 71 men and 114 women, in the field. These are distributed over 30 mission stations scattered throughout the province. The principal missions are to the Karens (who form by far the greater majority of the converts), the Burmans, the Shans, the Chins, and the Kachins; but there are also recent extensions among the Was and the Lahus. One element in the success of this community is the Baptist Mission Press, which serves to bring all its sections into close communication with each other and with the central organising bodies. The principal difficulty encountered is a tendency to secession on the part of the Karens, who are prone to escape from central control, and without modifying their faith, to set up independent communities under native leaders. Activity among

the Burmese is also being countered by a Buddhist revival, which in the form of such societies as the Young Men's Buddhist Association is seeking to confirm the belief of the younger generation of Burmans in their national religion.

97. Roman Catholics.—The second place among the Christian denominations, both in numbers and in rapidity of progress, is occupied by the Roman

Catholic community. For the purpose of ecclesiastial control, the province of Arakan has been placed into the Roman Catholic Diacese of Dacca. The remainder of the province is divided into three Vicariates, the Vicariate Apostolic of Southern Burma, the Vicariate Apostolic of Northern Burma, and the Vicariate Apostolic of Eastern Burma. The first two roughly coincide with the divisions of Lower and Upper Burma, respectively. The third extends from the Toungoo District through the Southern Shan States to the Mekong

Roman Catholics in Burma.							
Year.	Numbers.						
1911 1901	60,282 37,105						
Increase	23,17						

river. The missions in the first two Vicariates are under the supervision of the Society of Fereign Missions of Paris, that in the Eastern Vicariate being

under the supervision of the Society of Foreign Missions of Milan. There are 51 mission stations served by 98 missionaries. As with the other denominations the greatest degree of success is obtained among the Karens, but missions to the Burmese, Shans and Kachins are in existence. The greater portion of the Indian Christians to be found in the province belong to the Roman Cathelic community.

Roman Catholic 1	Missionary st	rength.							
Number of									
Vicarlate.	Stations.	Missionaries.							
Southern Burma	1 29	61							
Northern Burma	1 1	22							
Eastern Burma	11	15							
Tetal	51	98							

98. Anglicans.—The fact that whereas the two leading Christian communities in the province, the Baptists and the Roman Catholics, have progressed

at such a rapid rate, while the figures for the Anglican community have diminished, entails a more detailed examination of the magnitude and locality of the variations in the number of Anglican adherents. The marginal statement indicates the widespread nature of the decline, operating as it has done, in 22 districts of the province, and producing a net decline in four out of five divisions. There are two natural possible explanations of the figures. The first is that the figures for 1901 were unduly enhanced by the inclusion of persons who returned themselves as unspecified protestants. The enhancement of 76 per cent, for Burma Proper, from 12,202 adherents in 1891 to 21,516 in 1901, followed by a slight diminution for the period 1901-1911, indicates that there is a probability that the figures for the mediant enumeration were enhanced by some artificial factor. This is to some extent supported by the wide distribution of the decline now experienced Another possible explanation is that the missionary strength of the Anglican community is not sufficiently great to retain a hold over the converts widely scattered throughout the districts of the province. There are 52 clergy of the Anglican Diocese of Rangoon, but a large proportion of these are engaged in duties as chaplains, or in connection with unaniment our gregations.

,	ing Os	. <b>(</b>	noty.	
	•			
Instruct and Natur Includes	.3	1,11.	1 201.	lucrease or Decrease.
Province	•••	20,734	22,307	-1.573
Central Basin	***	2.75)	4.266	-477
Piene		143	1/2	-10
Pastings .	••	107	41%	- 151
Patritin		5.5	, ;4	-20
Mod a	•	63	. 53	+4
Magne Matelity	•••	(4) 1,701	1,517	-:6
Shacto	•••	\$11		-253
Sag lot .		124	57	+67
lawer Chindeln	***	r;	61	+5
hija dec	P4 1	47	45 (	***
Meddilla	141	271	319	+63
Yametiln Miskann	••	1:3	147	-8 -3
,	** ;	7		-
Delt-le Ploins	••	14.712	15.638	-725
Haraoan		6,511	5,1.5	+1,403
Harlantenty	· ;	1,531	1,618	+13
Thatian addy	••• ;	103	754	-651
Pegu Basicia	7**	131	430	-199
Hertala	***	640 130	1,317	-577 -353
Myaungmya	***	259	125	-33
Ma-utin		444	)	- ,
Pyania		513	} ;07	+205
Thatia		73	:93	- 329 '
Teabgus	· ;	4,272	4,600	324
Northern Hill Dist	:lcts.	644	405	فزء ح
Dh.mo		331	326	:5
Mystkylna	•••	V5	31	
Ratha Ruby Mines	***	117	45	7.3
Upper Chindwin		31	7.2 7.35	-12
Coast Ranges	• ;	1,167	1.7%	-23
Akyab		130	5-4	-24
Northern Arakan	-,. }		- <del>-</del> -	-14 +3
Kyaukpyu		4		-73
Sandaray	••• `		2-2	
Salween		. 6	•	
Tavoy	~	2	12.	~ £3
Mergul	~	21.	مبر چ.نت	
Specially Administer	::5	÷¢	T.F	بۇستە • چىلتۇرىت
Northern State Sens	خ	.5	e:	
Southern plant train	1	- 5	7.9	
Pakeers Rin Trans	~			-
Chie Hile			<b>s</b>	~

number devoted solely to mission work is 14 European and 13 Native Clergy, and these are assisted by 15 lady workers. This number is small, compared with the numbers of full time missionaries of the Baptist and Roman Catholic persuasions. The decline has taken effect in the districts where active missionary work is scarcely undertaken. Converts who have migrated from the localities where they entered the Anglican Church, unless they can be kept in close touch with its ministrations, are likely to join other denominations with a more widely distributed missionary activity. The relatively small decline in Toungoo district is to be attributed to secession from the parent body rather than to any diminution in the number of converts.

99. Other Denominations.—The remaining Christian denominations derive their principal strength from the Europeans resident in the province, and to

Denomination.	Numbers.	Percenta	ge of Christian po	pulation.
		European.	Anglo-Indian.	Native.
Methodist Presbyterian Lutheran Armenian Greek Congregationalist	1,675 1,009 328 256 49	2'1 6'5 '6 1'8	2'0 '6  '1	

a smaller extent from the Anglo-Indian community. The figures for Methodists include those for the American Methodist Church as well as those for the Wesleyan Methodist Church. The English Wesleyan Mission commenced operations in 1887. It has now eleven missionaries distributed over six mission

stations all in Upper Burma. The energies of the mission are largely devoted to educational work among the Burmese and the supervision of the home for lepers at Mandalay. The actual number of native converts returned is 1,179. The Lutheran Mission has one native missionary only, working among the Tamil immigrants from Southern India. The remaining Protestant denominations do not engage in active missionary propaganda.

100. Other Religions.—The figures for the remaining religions entered are of no great statistical significance. The number of Sikhs has remained nearly

Dalinian	Num	bers.
Religion.	1911.	1901.
Sikh Jain Zoroastrian Jew Confucian	6,693 495 300 1,024 71	6,596 93 245 685

stationary. They form the bulk of the Military Police Force of the province. The increase in the number of Jains is probably due to a better appreciation of the differences between the Jain and the Hindu religion. The remarkable rate of increase in the number of Jews mentioned by Mr. Lowis has continued in operation. They reside principally in the large towns, 750 out of their total numbers of 1,024 dwelling in the City of Rangoon, and 966 in the towns of the Province. Zoroastrianism shows a moderate increase from

245 to 300 as compared with a marked increase from 98 to 245 in the previous decade. The entry of 71 Confucians in the records is due to members of the educated Chinese community in Rangoon returning Confucianism rather than ancestor-worship as their religion.

101. Indefinite Beliefs.—There has been a marked, and in some way an extraordinary increase in the number of persons returned as of no religion or as not belonging to any recognised scheme of religion. Of these there were 66 Europeans and Anglo-Indians who were included among the Christians in Imperial Table VI, in order to prevent confusion by separating the members of Christian races. Four persons who recorded their religion as "none" have been included in the term "Atheists". Forty-five Burmese have recorded their religion under the terms Secularist, Rationalist, or Agnostic.

# Subsidiary Table I.—General Distribution of the Population by Religion.

<b>.</b>	Actual	Pro	portion p popula	er 10,00 ition in	o of	Variation	per cent. decrease—	(increase+	Percent- age of ne Variation
Religion.	Number in 1911.	1911.	1901.	1891.	1881.	1901-1911.	1891-1901.	1881-1891.	1881-1911
- 1	2	3	. 4	.2	б	7	8	9	10
Buddhist—				-					
Whole Province	10,384,579	8,572	8,862	9,053	8,701	+ 13	+ 33		
Central Basin Deltaic Plains Northern Hill Districts Coast Ranges Specially Administered Territories.	3,950,305 3,696,354 516,473 1,110,733 1,110,714	8,532	9,642 8,795 8,441 7,374 8,477	9,631 8,980  7,699	9,012  7,802	+ 12 + 12 + 13 + 16 + 15	+ 9 + 22 - 3	+ 29 + 14	+ 92 + 28
Animist—								-	
Whole Province	701,473	579	385	221	384	+ 76	+ 137		
Central Basin Deltaic Plains Northern Hill Districts Coast Ranges Specially Administered Territories.	38,670 59,640 120,354 109,949 372,860	94 137 1,816 733 2,478	100 95 1,223 763 1,428	755	220  690	+ 67 + 81 + 11 + 130	- 8 + 37 + 2	- 45 + 26	+ 27 + 43 
Hindu—								•	
Whole Province	389,679	321	275	228	233	+ 36	+ 65	}	
Central Basin Deltaic Plains Northern Hill Districts Coast Ranges Specially Administered Territories.	44,022 280,374 13,548 44,344 7,391	107 647 204 295 49	\$0 531 177 325 48	82 367  282 	258	+ 50 + + 41 + + 41 + + 5 +	96 +	<sub>84</sub> + <sub>23</sub> +	 409  50
Mahomedan—									
Whole Province	420,777	347	328	333   45	52   +	24 +	34	·-	.
Central Basin Deltaic Plains Northern Hill Districts Coast Ranges Specially Administered Territories.	61,927 127,043 7,595 221,010 3,202	1	135   13 248   19 107   57   1,177 21	7   173	+   +   +	37 +	71 + 725 +	47   + 24 18   + 72	ή.
Christian— Whole Province	210,081   17.	3 142	159	225			<i>,</i>		
Central Basin Deltaic Plains Northern Hill Districts Coast Ranges	16,593 40 65,069 381 3,105 47 14,913 99 0,401 69	33 326 28 79 16	20 358  86	335  91	+ 42 + 37 + 35 + 104 + 46 + 478		/ /		

# Subsidiary Table II.—Distribution by Districts of the main religions.

District and Natural Buddhists. Animists. Hindus. Mahomedans. Christians.	-			Number per 10,000 of the population who are																		
Control   Cont		District and Natural		D., 11				·		- utuber	per 10			pulation	ıl					-	<del>-</del>	
L—Central Basin g.6a gb4, 653 g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g g		Division.			·	··		1	ī	<del></del>		Hir 7	duş.	,		Mahor	nedans			Chris	tlans.	
Long Calabridge   Long Calab			1912.	1901.	1891.	1881.	1911.	1001,	1891.	1881.	1911.	1501.	1891.	1831.	1911.	1901.	1891.	1881.	1911.	1901.	1891.	1831.
Prome		t .	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	ıš	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
Prome			-		-					_												
Prome		I Control Books		2 6 12	0 622														j	.		
Thaystmys		·					94			"	107	80	82	***	ışı	±35	133	•••	40	33	29	
Pakakku			]			1 1	]	_		1	1		1	1	-		1			1		-
Magne	1	n		1	1		1		1	-	1	] -	j		11 .	1	1	} `,		} `	l	1
Manuslay				1	}		1		ļ	1	∄ .		1	1		1		1		İ		1
Mandalay			1		1	{	į		1	1	<u> </u>	ì	ł		}	1	1	1 :		l	ļ	l
Same	١	_				l i		_		ļ	11	ł	1	1			1		1		l	1
Sogning		Shwebo	9,677	9,635	9,517			4	6	ſ	1	[ -	i			ĺ					1	
Lower Chindwin   9,026 9,033 9,090   0.0   2   2   2   0.0   3   3   16   0.0   38   38   3.0   0   7   1   0.0		Sagaing	9.817	9,865	9,845		3	3	ı	1	11			1			[ ]				1	ļ
McMillia	1		9,926	9,923	9,950		1	1	2	İ	1		1	{	j	_		1 1	-	-		
Meiktilla		Kyanksè	9,540	9,672	9,690		1	4	3	<b></b>	57		42		350	243	247	į i	45	1	-15	
III.—Deltaic Plaina		-	9,712	9,803	9,863		3	6	5		il	65	54	•••	153	104	1		24	20	ì	
III.   Deltaic Plains   Resident   Residen	1	Yamèthiu	9,370	9,429	9,40)		79	110	95		123	87	104		<b>3</b> 59	321	331		58	41	31	
Rangeon 3,333 3,565 4,433 5,600 246 313 27 2 3,694 3,533 3,00 2,674 1,563 1,871 1,597 1,577 786 721 793 725 Hanthawaddy 9,544 9,530 9,734 9,727 54 1.6. 53 77 170 213 83 71 89 79 48 40 139 1.09 13 84 Pegu 8,619 9,995 9,541 1,663 146 51 35 530 63 12 13 83 71 89 79 48 40 139 1.09 13 84 Pegu 8,607 8,99 0,141 8,663 46 51 35 530 63 321 133 124 184 165 123 126 633 571 89 114 114 114 114 114 114 114 114 114 11	-	Myingyan	9,913	9,950	9,902		4	6	6		40	19	39		34	19	34		7	5	17	
Rangeon 3,333 3,565 4,433 5,600 246 313 27 2 3,694 3,533 3,00 2,674 1,563 1,871 1,597 1,577 786 721 793 725 Hanthawaddy 9,544 9,530 9,734 9,727 54 1.6. 53 77 170 213 83 71 89 79 48 40 139 1.09 13 84 Pegu 8,619 9,995 9,541 1,663 146 51 35 530 63 12 13 83 71 89 79 48 40 139 1.09 13 84 Pegu 8,607 8,99 0,141 8,663 46 51 35 530 63 321 133 124 184 165 123 126 633 571 89 114 114 114 114 114 114 114 114 114 11	1							ŀ		-						ĺ		1 1				
Hauthawaddy		II.—Deltaic Plains	8,532	8,795	8,980	9,012	<b>±37</b>	95	94	120	647	531	367	258	293	248	197	173	381	326	358	335
Thatrawaldy 9.544 9.570 9.724 9.737 84 26 53 77 170 213 82 71 89 79 48 40 139 100 91 84 Pega 8,613 9.050 9.886 135 51 37 800 8.487 3.55 172 140 111 287 156 .1.65 172 140 111 287 156 .1.65 173 111 187 156 188 163 9.891 100 91 84 184 163 9.891 100 91 84 184 184 163 91 122 126 633 371 563 547 111 111 187 157 158 159 91 91 91 91 91 84 184 184 163 91 122 126 633 371 563 547 184 184 184 165 91 122 126 633 371 563 547 184 184 184 185 185 185 185 185 185 185 185 185 185		Rangcon	3,323	3,560	4,428	5,003	246	313	27		3,694	3,533	3,208	2,674	1,862	1,831	1,590	1,577	786	721	703	725
Pegu	1	Hanthawaddy	8,303	8,713	2,30)	9,539	87	60	40	11	1,060	815	319	185	302	247	175	95	234	153	155	169
Bastein		Thatrawaddy	9,544	9,570	9,724	9.727	54	25.	5 <b>3</b>	77	170	213	82	71	89	79	48	. 40	139	103	gı	84
Henrada		Pegu	8,613	9,995	9,286		125	.51	37		800	548	3)5		172	140	111		287	264	, 165	
Maeubin 9,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,000   0,	-	Bassein	8,867	8,892	9.141	8,663	46	51	35	539	263	321	138	124	184	163	122	126	633	571	563	547
Maubin	١	Henzada	9,567	9,674	9,682	9,801	27	7	3	4	124	88	70	22	87	62	· 57	37	193	167	187	135
Maubhin	-	Myaungmya	8,974	9,306	)		87	31	)		183	79	).		212	132	) .	-0	542	451	7 .	
Thitish		Ma-ubin	9,266	30376	\$9505	9.654	54	}	37	20	176	},,,,	\$ 87	25	159	},,,	82	58	343	}220	}298	242
Toungoo 7,829 3,115 7,610 7,795 637 561 547 979 405 193 188 162 181 131 157 153 944 978 1,495 1,411 111.—Northern Hill 7,792 8,441 1,816 1,223 204 177 114 107 47 28		Pyapón	8,954	<i>)~"</i>	-		139	3			474	3-33			138	, .				ر.		
HIL, Northern   Hill   7,792   8,441       1,816   1,223       204   177       114   107       47   28	Ì	Thaton	9,119	9,327	9,114	9,240	142	28	432	580	403	38 <b>3</b>	198	56	245	200	84	50	89	60	119	• 73
Districts   Rhamo	-	Toungoo	7,829	8,115	7,610	7,295	637	561	547	979	405	193	193	163	131	151	157.	152	944	978	1,495	1,411
Myitkyina 3.525 5.100 5.381 3.763 723 827 222 227 66 34			7,792	8,441	, •••		1,816	[,2,23			204	177		•••	114	107		•••	47	28		
Rathar		Bhamo	4,951	5,976			4,426	3,347	•••		153	183		•••	208	292			165	100		·
Ruby Mines 7,935 7,932 8,981 1,667 1,736 488 149 216 296 119 87 115 20 20 103  Upper Chindwin 9,603 9,724 218 139 104 72 63 50 10 15  IV.—Coast Ranges 7,339 7,374 7,699 7,802 733 763 755 690 195 325 282 264 1,472 1,457 1,177 1,153 99 79 86 91  Akyab 5,708 5,814 6,204 6,395 619 658 677 561 273 250 235 245 3,366 3,221 2,862 2,767 11 15 21 31  Northern Arakan 807 733 833 1,150 8,915 9,054 8,913 8,339 255 201 250 157 19 5 12 3 3 3 1 1 1 10  Kyankpyu 8,970 8,923 3,854 3,937 7,76 823 847 733 32 24 18 15 196 217 262 284 5 7 8 4  Sandoway 8,858 5,734 8,814 3,820 645 715 707 761 37 66 23 19 414 430 495 392 45 58 50 5  Saiwcen 4,333 3,645 1,375 1,699 5,379 6,504 8,485 8,243 53 57 55 12 87 44 66 35 83 49 18 10  Amberti 8,413 8,235 8,614 8,720 118 65 193 19 649 844 584 551 632 600 453 477 185 160 145 161  Trace 9,571 9,506 9,750 9,670 101 90 10 41 62 50 34 29 115 103 84 97 148 150 121  V.—Specially Adminis 9,941 3,254 8,333 3,402 367 193 255 502 302 86 116 48 831 801 717 730 407 248 317 317  V.—Specially Adminis 9,941 3,254 8,333 3,402 367 193 255 502 302 86 116 48 831 801 717 730 407 248 317 317  V.—Specially Adminis 9,941 3,254 8,333 3,402 367 193 255 502 302 86 116 48 831 801 717 730 407 248 317 317  V.—Specially Adminis 9,941 3,255 1,123 506 55 127 27 45 27 88 109 19 109 19 109 19 109 19 109 19 109 19 109 19 109 19 109 19 109 19 109 19 109 19 11 100 100 100 100 100 100 100			3.525	5,100			1 1				723	827			222	239			66	34		<i></i>
Upper Chindwin 9,602 9,724 218 129 104 72 63 50 10 15		Katha	9.543	9,538			307	327	•••		72	70			58	53			19	9		
IV.—Coast Ranges 7.399 7.374 7.699 7.80a 733 763 755 690 295 325 28a 264 1.472 1.457 1.177 1.152 99 79 86 91  Akyab 5.708 5.814 6.204 6.395 619 658 677 561 273 260 235 245 3.366 3.221 2.861 2.767 111 15 11 31  Northern Arakan 807 738 823 1.490 8.915 9.054 8.913 8.339 255 201 250 157 19 5 12 3 3 1 1 1 10  Kyankpya 8.970 8.923 8.864 8.937 7.76 828 847 733 32 24 18 15 196 217 263 284 5 7 8 4  Sandoway 5.853 8.734 8.814 8.810 645 715 707 763 37 61 23 19 414 430 405 393 45 68 50 5  Saiween 4.333 3.655 1.375 1.693 5.379 6.204 8.485 8.243 53 57 55 12 87 44 66 35 82 49 18 10  Amberst 3.413 3.235 8.614 3.700 118 65 123 19 649 844 584 551 622 600 453 477 1285 160 145 161  Tarey 9.572 9.506 9.750 9.670 101 90 10 42 62 50 34 29 115 102 84 97 148 150 121 161  Mergal 8.041 3.564 8.833 3.402 167 193 255 502 302 86 116 48 831 801 717 730 407 248 327 317  V.—Specially Administ 7.300 8.477 2.478 7.428 49 48 21 22 69 16  Northern Shart States 7.201 3.550 2.1000 215 55 127 27 45 7 8		Ruby Mines	7.935	7,92)	8,981		1,007	3,726	488		249	226	296		119	87	115		20	20	103	•••
Akyab 5,708 5,814 6,204 6,395 639 658 677 561 273 250 235 245 3,366 3,221 2,861 2,767 111 15 11 31 Northern Arakan 807 738 823 1,490 8,915 9,054 8,913 8,339 255 201 250 157 19 5 12 3 3 1 1 1 10 Kyaukpyu 8,970 8,923 8,854 8,937 776 818 847 733 32 24 18 15 196 217 263 284 5 7 8 4 Sandoway 8,853 8,734 8,814 8,810 645 715 707 761 37 61 23 19 414 430 405 393 45 68 50 5 Sandoway 8,853 8,734 8,814 8,810 645 715 707 761 37 61 23 19 414 430 405 393 45 68 50 5 Sandoway 8,413 8,225 8,614 8,720 118 65 123 19 649 844 584 551 623 600 453 477 185 160 145 161 Taloy 9,573 9,506 9,750 9,670 101 90 10 41 62 50 34 20 115 103 84 97 148 150 121 161 Mergal 8,041 8,264 8,833 8,402 167 193 255 502 302 86 116 48 831 801 717 730 407 248 327 317 V.—Specially Adminis. 7,350 8,477 2,478 7,418 49 48 21 21 69 16 10 Sandoway Sandoway Sandoway 2,478 7,418 55 127 27 45 7 8	ļ	Upper Chindwin	9,602	9,724			218	129	•••		104	72			63	50			10	15	•••	
Akyab 5,708 5,814 6,204 6,395 639 658 677 561 273 250 235 245 3,366 3,221 2,861 2,767 111 15 11 31 Northern Arakan 807 738 823 1,490 8,915 9,054 8,913 8,339 255 201 250 157 19 5 12 3 3 1 1 1 10 Kyaukpyu 8,970 8,923 8,854 8,937 776 818 847 733 32 24 18 15 196 217 263 284 5 7 8 4 Sandoway 8,853 8,734 8,814 8,810 645 715 707 761 37 61 23 19 414 430 405 393 45 68 50 5 Sandoway 8,853 8,734 8,814 8,810 645 715 707 761 37 61 23 19 414 430 405 393 45 68 50 5 Sandoway 8,413 8,225 8,614 8,720 118 65 123 19 649 844 584 551 623 600 453 477 185 160 145 161 Taloy 9,573 9,506 9,750 9,670 101 90 10 41 62 50 34 20 115 103 84 97 148 150 121 161 Mergal 8,041 8,264 8,833 8,402 167 193 255 502 302 86 116 48 831 801 717 730 407 248 327 317 V.—Specially Adminis. 7,350 8,477 2,478 7,418 49 48 21 21 69 16 10 Sandoway Sandoway Sandoway 2,478 7,418 55 127 27 45 7 8		_																		70	20	
Northern Arakan 807 738 823 1,490 8,915 9,054 8,913 8,339 255 201 250 157 19 5 12 3 3 1 1 1 10    Kyankpyu 8,970 8,923 3,854 8,957 776 828 847 731 32 24 18 15 196 217 261 284 5 7 8 4    Sandoway 8,858 8,734 8,814 8,820 645 715 707 763 37 61 23 19 414 430 405 392 45 63 50 5    Salveen 4,333 3,645 1,375 1,697 5,379 6,204 8,485 8,243 53 57 55 12 87 44 66 35 82 49 18 10    Amherst 8,423 8,225 8,614 8,770 118 65 193 19 649 844 584 551 622 600 453 477 185 160 145 161    Tarey 9,572 9,506 9,750 9,670 103 90 10 43 62 50 34 29 115 103 84 97 148 150 121 161    Mergal 8,041 3,254 8,833 3,402 367 193 255 502 302 86 116 48 831 801 717 730 407 248 327 317    VSpecially Adminis- 7,320 2,477 1,478 1,418 49 48 21 21 69 16 69 16 50 127 55 127 27 45 7 8 109 19 1,223 506 1,223 506 553 553 553	į			İ		[ [					295	į.				1				- 1		1
Kyankpyn 8,970 8,923 8,854 8,937 776 828 847 733 32 24 18 15 196 217 262 284 5 7 8 4 Sandoway 8,853 8,734 8,814 8,820 645 715 707 763 37 61 23 19 414 430 405 392 45 68 50 5 Sandoway 3,645 1,375 1,693 8,179 6,104 8,185 8,243 53 57 55 12 87 44 66 35 83 49 18 10 Amberst 3,423 8,235 8,614 8,770 118 65 193 19 649 844 584 551 622 600 453 477 1285 160 145 161 Taley 9,572 9,506 9,750 9,670 102 90 10 42 62 50 34 29 115 102 84 97 148 150 121 161 Mergal 8,041 3,254 8,533 3,402 167 193 255 502 302 86 116 48 831 801 717 730 407 248 337 317 VSpecially Adminis 7,350 8,477 2,478 7,428 49 48 41 21 69 16 69 16 121 Solution Share State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State State			1	ļ	ŀ	1 1		1	!	1			1		- 1	1	·		1	i	- 1	- [
Sandoway \$,858 \$.734 \$.814 \$.820 645 715 707 763 37 61 23 19 414 430 405 392 45 68 50 5 Salveen 4.333 5.645 1.375 1.669 5.379 6.204 8.485 8.243 58 57 55 12 87 44 66 35 82 49 18 10 Amherit \$,413 5.235 \$.614 \$.750 118 65 123 19 649 844 584 551 622 600 453 477 185 160 145 161 Taley 9.572 9.600 9.750 9.670 103 90 10 41 63 50 34 29 115 102 84 97 148 150 121 161 Mergal \$,041 \$.264 \$.533 \$.402 367 193 255 502 302 \$6 116 48 831 801 717 730 407 248 317  VSpecially Administration 7.350 8.477 2.478 1.448 49 48 21 21 69 16  Northern Shart State State State State 5 500 1.243 1.213 506 55 127 27 45 7 8  Shart a Salve State 5 5.00 1.243 1.213 506 55 127 20 13 109 19  [Palada a Main In Texts 12 2.733 2.733 58 3 3			į:		i -	1 ' '			_	1				- 1	-	ł	263		- 1	7	8	4
Salween 4.333 3.645 1.375 1.697 5.379 6.704 8.485 8.243 53 57 55 12 87 44 66 35 82 49 18 10  Amberst 3.423 5.235 8.614 3.750 118 65 193 19 649 844 584 551 622 600 453 477 1285 160 145 161  Tatey 9.572 9.506 9.750 9.670 103 90 10 42 62 50 34 29 115 103 84 97 148 150 121 161  Mergal 8.041 3.264 8.533 3.402 367 193 255 502 302 86 116 48 831 801 717 730 407 248 337 317  V.—Specially Administ 7.350 8.477 2.478 2.428 49 48 21 21 69 16  Northern Shar Males 7.203 3.550 2.000 215 55 127 27 45 7 8  Southern Shar Males 3.501 3.501 2.000 215 55 127 27 45 109 19  [Palada 2 Hall Teacts 12 9.733 9.733 58 58 3 3 3 109 19			i.		1	1 !		1		1			- 1	i			1	1	j		50	5
Amherst   3,423   5,235   8,624   8,750   118   65   193   19   649   844   584   552   622   600   453   477   285   160   145   161   Tarey   9,572   9,606   9,750   9,670   101   90   10   43   62   50   34   29   115   102   84   97   148   150   121   161   Mergal   8,041   3,254   8,533   3,402   367   193   255   502   302   56   116   48   831   802   717   730   407   248   337   317    V.—Specially Administration 7,300   8,477     2,478   2,428       49   48       21   22       69   16        Noting Shar States 7,300   3,550       2,000   215                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                               .		•			1	t		1		_	<u> </u>			- 1	- 1		- {		82	49	18	10
Taisy 9,573 9,506 9,750 9,670 103 90 10 43 62 50 34 29 115 102 84 97 148 150 131 161  Mergal 8,041 3,264 8,533 3,402 367 193 255 502 302 56 116 48 831 803 717 730 407 248 337 317  V.—Specially Administration 7,350 8,477 2,478 1,438 49 48 21 21 69 16 69 16  Noting Shar States 7,103 4,550 2,100 115 55 127 27 45 7 8  Southern Shar States 3,103 1,243 1,223 506 35 12 20 13 109 19		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	,	1		į.			1	,				i	1		453	477	285	160	145	161
Mergal \$,041 \$.254 \$.533 \$.402 \$367 \$193 \$255 \$502 \$302 \$56 \$116 \$48 \$831 \$501 717 730 \$407 \$248 \$317 \$317 \$\] V.—Specially Administ 7.350 \$.477 \$2.478 \$.448 49 \$48 41 \$21 69 \$16 \$\] Northern Shin States 7.300 \$.350 \$1,000 \$115 55 \$127 27 \$45 7 \$8 \$\] Shintan Shin States \$2.00 \$150 \$1,000 \$150 55 \$127 20 \$13 \$109 \$19 \$\] I'Alakar Half Frects \$12 \$2,023 \$2,023 \$2,023 58 \$3 \$20 \$13 \$2 \$\]		-		1	l	1		1		, 1		50	- 1	29	115	102	84	97	148	150	121	161
V.—Specially Administ 7,350 8,477 2,478 2,418 49 48 21 21 69 16 10 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15		i .	11	1	1	1	1	1	255		302	86	336	48	831	801	717	730	407	248	327	317
Northern Shan States 7,300 ,450 2,600 11555 127 27 45 7 8			;				; !						Ì						60	16		
Southern Sales States   3.507   3.505       1.500   115		vbrecially Adminis- tered Territories	7,3:0	· 6.477			2.478	7,418	•••		49	48	***	***	-11	21						
['Alaxa Had fracts 12' 9,523' 58' 3 3		Northma Shira Status	: 1.]a)	<b>ي</b> غه			2,000				55	127			27	45				i i		
14.417.41.11.21.21.21.21.21.21.21.21.21.21.21.21		Southern Saus States	\$ 5:0	1,213			. 1,223	506	•		35	12			20	13		••• !	- 1	10	- 1	1
Care Name 7 31 2.916 9.775 113 113 12 11 19 3		Pakida e Historia	. 13				2.733		· •••	•••	58				3	- 1	•••		- 1	- 1	İ	1
		Carrier	• •	,,	***	***	. 5,916	9.775		•••	113	113	•••		12	**			10	3	**-	***

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE III.—Christians, Number and Variation.

	Actu	al number	of Christia	ns in		Variatio	n per cent.	
District and Natural Division.	. 1911.	. 1901.	1891.	1881.	1901-1911.	1891-1901.	1881-1891.	1881-1911.
. 1	2	3	- 4	5 .	6	7	<b>S</b> :	9
Whole Province	210,081	147,525	120,922	84,219	+ 42	+ 22	+ 44	+ 149
I.—Central Basin	16,593	12,105	9,631	•••	+ 37	+ 26		
Prome Thayetmyo Pakôkku Minbu Magwe Mandalay Shwebo Lower Chindwin Kyauksè Meiktila Yamèthin Myingyan	971 592 284 150 482 6,571 2,746 1,013 297 679 678 1,813	625 881 193 199 151 4,389 2,493 858 188 438 508 1,002	616 1,465 200 135 239 3,065 778 1,304 38 190 320 686 595	•••	+ 55 - 33 + 25 + 219 + 18 + 58 + 55 + 33 + 76	+ 1 - 40 - 37 + 43 + 220 - 34 + 395 + 130 + 46 - 70	+ 27 - 37   	+ 100 75 
II Deltaic Plains	165,069	121,885	98,800	71,298	+ 35	+ 23	+ 38	÷ 181
Rangoon Hanthawaddy Tharrawaddy Pegu Bassein Henzada Myaungmya Ma-ubin Pyapôn Thatôn Toungoo	23,054 12,647 6,052 12,316 27,927 10,285 18,157 10,474 7,291 3,738 33,138	16,930 7,440 4,301 8,978 22,376 8,085 13,676 10,686 2,083 27,330		21,324 4,308 6,894	+ 33		$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	+ 137 + 75 + 156 + 31 + 139 + 421 + 199 + 82
III. — Northern Hill Districts	3,105	1,508	1,236		+ 106	+ 22		•••
Bhamo Myitkyina Katha Ruby Mines Upper Chindwin	1,785 565 383 198 173	784 161 153 176 234	819 72 269 76	{  	+ 127 + 251 + 150 + 12 - 26	- 4 - 80 + 112 - 34 + 208	•••	  
IV.—Coast Ranges	14,913	10,228	11,101	10,088	+ 46	- 8	+ 10	+ 48
Akyab Northern Arakan Kyaukpyu Sandoway Salween Amherst Tavoy Mergui	605 7 95 460 384 6,824 1,999 4,539	720 3 121 528 185 4,805 1,651 2,215	893 1 136 385 58 6,062 1,149 2,417	1,114 15 54 31 31 5,680 1,368 1,795	- 16 + 133 - 21 - 13 + 107 + 42 + 21 + 105	- 19 + 200 - 11 + 37 + 219 - 21 + 43 - 8	- 20 - 93 + 152 + 1,142 + 87 - 16 + 35	- 45 - 53 + 76 + 1,384 + 1,139 + 20 + 46 + 153
V.—Specially Administered Territories.	10,401	1,799	•••	•••	+ 478		. <b></b>	
Northern Shan States Southern Shan States Pakôkku Hill Tracts Chin Hills	348 9,810 4 231	238 1,528  33	} 154	··· {	+ 46 + 542  + 600	+ 54	•••	•••

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE IV.—Races and Sects of Christians.

S	Euroj	ean.	Anglo-	Indian.	Nati	ve.	то	tal.	Variation
Sect.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male,	Female.	1911.	1901.	+ or —
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	S	9	10
Provincial Total	10,014	3,419	6,039	5,067	94,980	90,562	210,081	147,525	+ 62,556
Anglican Communion	5,408	1,614	2,062	1,651	5,209	4,790	20,734	22,307	-1,573
Armenian	151	90	13			2	256	256	,,,,
Baptist	467	292	54I	416	60,745	59,804	122,265	66,860	+55,405
Congregationalist	Ī				4	***	5	l	+5
Greek	39	8			2	•••	49	70	-21
Lutheran	39 61	8	2		153	104	328	399	-71
Methodist	202	79	102	113	670	509	1,675	1,238	+437
Minor Protestant	7	II	10	14	4	3	49	48	+1
Denominations.					_			] _	1
Presbyterian	739	136	39 63	28	ვნ	31	1,009	620	+389
Protestant (unspeci-	267	44	63	50	1,190	1,168	2,782		+2,782
Roman Catholic	2,501	1,093	3,156	2,762	26,746	24,024	60,282	37,105	+23,177
Sect not returned	122	41	39	31	221	127	581	18,622	-18,041
Indefinite Beliefs	49	3	12	2	•••	•••	66	•••	+ 66
	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u>!</u>	<u> </u>		ļ	1	<u> </u>	1

# SUBSIDIARY TABLE V.—Distribution of Christians per mille—(a) Races by Sect, and (b) Sects by Race.

•		Rad	ces distribu	ted by Sect		Sects d	listributed	by Race.
Sect.	European.	Anglo- Indian.	Native.	Totai.	European.	Anglo- Indian,	Native.	
1	2	3	4 -	5	6	· 7	8	
Name.	Number of members.							
Anglican Communion Armenian Baptist Congregationalist Greek	20,73.4 256 122,265 5 49	522 18 56 	335 86 	5.1 650 	99 1 582 	339 941 6 200 959	179 51 8 	482 8 986 800 41
Lutheran Methodist Minor Protestant Denominations.	328 1,675 49	6 21 1	20 2	1 6 	<sup>2</sup> 8	168 367	6 128 490	784 704 143
Presbyterian Protestant (unspecified) Roman Catholic Sect not returned Indefinite Beliefs	1,009 2,782 60,282 581 66	65 23 267 12	6 10 533 6 1	 13 274 2	5 13 287 3	867 112 60 281 816	66 41 98 120	67 84 <b>7</b> 842 599 184

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE VI.—Religions of Urban and Rural Populations.

	Number per 10,000 of Urban population who are							Number per 10,000 of Rural population who are						
Natural Division.	Buddhist.	Animist.	Hindu.	Mahomedan.	Christian.	Others.	Buddhist.	Animist.	Hindu.	Mahomedan.	Christian.	Others.		
1	2	3	4	5	б	7	3	9	10	11	12	13		
Whale Province	6,149	220	1,840	1,311	418	62	8,820	616	166	248	148	2		
Central Basin Deltaie Plains Northern Hill Districts,	7,988 5,148 5,228	114 241 1,057	2,619	884 1,390 1,112	284 544 762		9,769 9,450 7,918		49 346 123	73 124 (6	16 356 36	 2 6		
	5.470	243	t,800	2,173	362		7.593 7.381	784 2,477	137 49	1,400 21	86 69	 . 3		

#### CHAPTER V.

#### Age.

of the people of Burma are contained in the two parts of Imperial Table VII. Part A gives the ages for Burma Proper, for the Specially Administered Territories and for the whole province, by separate years from the ages o to 5, and thence by quinquennial periods till the age of 70. Part B gives for individual districts, the ages of the population in quinquennial age periods from o to 20, and thence by the periods 20 to 40, 40 to 60, and 60 and over. Imperial Tables VIII, XII, XIV and XVIII, also give information concerning different aspects of the distribution of population arranged by ages, and these tables are supplemented by a series of eleven subsidiary tables appended to this chapter, as follows:—

Subsidiary Table I.—Age distribution of 100,000 of each sex by annual age periods.

Subsidiary Table IA.—Adjustment of age distribution of 100,000 males by Bloxham's method.

Subsidiary Table IB.—Adjustment of age distribution of 100,000 females by Bloxham's method.

Subsidiary Table IC.—Age distribution of 100,000 Buddhists of each sex calculated by Mr. Hardy from the Census Tables of 1901.

Subsidiary Table II.—Age distribution of 10,000 of each sex in the Province, and each natural division.

Subsidiary Table III.—Age distribution of 10,000 of each sex in each main religion.

Subsidiary Table IV.—Age distribution of 1,000 of each sex in certain races.

Subsidiary Table V.—Proportion of children under 10 and of persons over 50 to those aged 15—40, also of married females aged 15—40, per 100 females.

Subsidiary Table VI.—Variation in population at certain age-periods. Subsidiary Table VII.—Reported birth-rate by sex and Natural Divisions.

Subsidiary Table VIII.—Reported death-rate by sex and Natural Divisions.

Subsidiary Table IX.—Reported death-rate by sex and age in decade and in selected years, per mille living at same age, according to the Census of 1901.

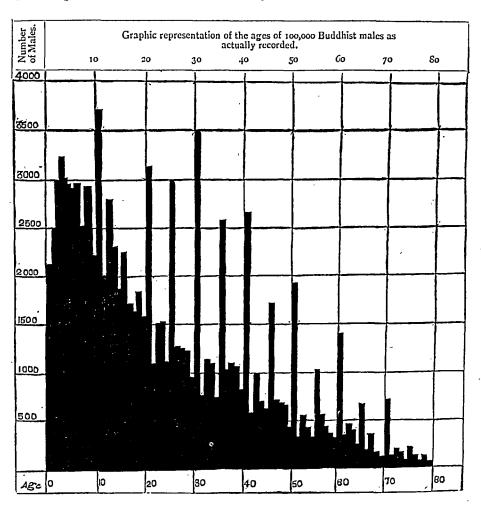
Subsidiary Table X.—Reported deaths from certain diseases, per mille of each sex.

As to the accuracy of the age statistics, it is generally conceded that the returns for India generally are much wanting in accuracy, and that the returns for Burma possess a somewhat higher degree of accuracy. The same general sources of inaccuracy are to be found both in Burma and India, with the addition in Burma, of exemption from Capitation Tax for persons below 18 years and above 60 years of age. The tendency to give certain ages such as multiples of 5 and 10 was examined by Mr. Lowis in the Census Report for 1901, and he found that though there was in Burma a marked preference for such ages, it did not exist to the same extent as in India. From a review of the recorded ages, it would appear that the assessment of the adult males in the province to Capitation Tax does not have much effect at the commencement of the period of assessment, but from a study of Bloxham's curve for males given to illustrate paragraph 104 below, the tendency to under-estimate the ages of males for some time prior to the attainment of the age of eighteen becomes apparent.

Towards the end of the assessment record, the exemption at 60 years of age is an influence in the enhancement of the reputed age over the true figure. From 55 onwards, the age of the Burman advances by as much as two years for one until exemption is achieved. Another disturbance is caused by the universal tendency to give the age of children somewhat over the true

A child is considered to be a one-year child long before the first twelve months of its life have been completed. The distinction between the first year of its life and the attainment of one year's completed life, is not sufficiently established in the minds of the mass of the people to enable the returns for children below one year of age and between one and two years to be accepted with accuracy. This over-statement of age continues with diminishing intensity during succeeding years, a child being considered to be two years old before the actual attainment of two years completed life. Three years is a very favourite age, being retained by many children from about two and a half years of age till nearly four. After this period, the tendency to give the ordinal number of the year of age (first, second, third, fourth, etc.) instead of the cardinal number of completed years, though still operating, has a smaller effect on the statistics. It is in the commencing years of the disturbance that the operation of a general tendency to enhancement is most manifest. In the succeeding years, it is modified by the fact that as the over-estimate of age for two succeeding years will be approximately the same, it does not enter to any great extent into the numbers for the intervening year of age.

#### 103. Graphic test of the accuracy of the statistics.—



Subsidiary Table I gives the recorded age of 100,000 Buddhists of each sex, the numbers being taken from several typical charges in Upper and Lower Burma. The exclusion of persons of other religions eliminates the disturbance of the age distribution, due to the preponderance of persons from adult to middle age among the immigrant races. If this age return could be relied on, then as the Buddhist population is highly progressive, the greatest number should be returned at the age of 0-1, and the numbers should progressively decrease with each succeeding age period. The best method of exhibiting the want of accuracy in the return is by the diagram at the head of this paragraph, which is a graphic presentation of the figures for males only, up to 80 years of age, as given in Subsidiary Table I. The base line is divided into 80 sections each representing one annual age period. The figures to the left of the diagram are to measure the numbers of males recorded at each age, the height of the column representing

	Diagra 1911(elex	m illust nentary	rating correc	correct sions).	ted ag Males,	e distr curves	ibution to the le	of Buc ft of di	ldhists j agram. I	for 1901 (act Temales curves	uarial ca s łołke riak	lculation) and
· 19 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	1 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1										References  References  References  References  References	in for Buddhicts in Burma,  iy Bloxdomis method
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the number of males, per 100,000 of the total number, of the age represented by its base. A true record of the ages should have produced a diagram of a totally different nature. The blocked portion should have descended by a series of steps from left to right. The steps would not be uniform, the descent on the left of the diagram starting rather steeply and growing less steep with increasing age. The diagram graphically convicts the returns of inaccuracy, in the following respects:—

(i) deficit in the numbers of persons in each age period from o to 3.

(ii) undue excess in the persons returned for the ages 3,10, 20, 25, and all subsequent multiples of five years.

(iii) undue depressions in the years before and after each age in the quinquennial series from 10 years upwards.

The most unpopular age years are those ending with the digits 1, 4 and 9.

104. Elementary correction of errors of age statistics.—It is possible to eliminate the errors due to the selection of favourite years in returning ages by a process of averages called "smoothing by Bloxham's method." As the irregularities are chiefly for five-year and ten-year age periods, two processes are necessary, the first to eliminate the tendency to give ages as multiples of five and the second to eliminate the more marked tendency to give ages as multiples The first is effected by averaging the ages given for periods of five years, taking in addition to the year under consideration, the figures for the two years prior to and two years subsequent to it. An elementary modification is needed for the two first and the two last years of the series. The second is effected by averaging the modified ages resulting from this correction, over periods of eleven years, five years prior to, and five years subsequent to, the year under consideration. The results of these eliminations of the main source of error in the age returns for Buddhist males are given in Subsidiary Table IA, and for Buddhist females in Subsidiary Table IB. But though this climinates the errors due to a preference for certain ages, and though it is a far more correct presentation of the real ages of the population than is given in Subsidiary Table I, or in the diagram illustrating paragraph 103, there still remain considerable errors uncorrected. The principal of these is the over-estimation of the ages of children and the consequent deficit in the numbers of children in the earlier ages. This overestimation is not peculiar to Burma. In his Memorandum on the Age Tables and Rates of Mortality of the Indian Census of 1901, Mr. Hardy states that the progression of the age figures in most of the provinces would appear to be fairly normal, if the assumption is made that one-half of those actually between the ages of one and two were returned at age 2 to 3, and that at subsequent ages up to-5, about 50 per cent. of the ages returned are ages next birthday instead of last birthday. The peculiarity of the age returns for Burma is that the over-estimation of age commences earlier than in the provinces of Bombay, Bengal, Madras and the North-West Provinces. In these provinces, the numbers returned at age one are either less than, or very little more than, one-half of those returned between o and 1, whereas in Burma the age return for o to 1 differs but slightly from that from 1 to 2.

The age statistics as recorded for Burma are being examined by an eminent English actuary, Mr. T. G. Ackland, F.I.A.; but his conclusions are not available for incorporation in the Census Report. In the absence of his report, the age returns for 1911 can be compared with the corrected age returns per 100,000 of the population, as calculated by Mr. Hardy from the census records of 1901. These are given in Subsidiary Table IC. and comparisons can be made between the figures for this table and those for the uncorrected ages recorded in 1911 (Subsidiary Table 1), and for the ages for 1911 corrected to a closer approximation to reality by Bloxham's method (Subsidiary Tables IA and IB). The appended diagrams are a graphical representation of the latter comparison. The two intersecting curves on the left represent the numbers of Buddhist males at each age period from 0 to 80 years of age. The heavy curve represents the numbers for 1911 corrected by the simple method of averages over five and ten year The fine curve represents the numbers for 1901 after an actuarial correction based on a consideration of the census tables for previous years, and the rates of mortality deduced from special observations in well defined areas. two intersecting curves to the right represent similar age calculations for Buddhist The age periods for males are placed at the foot, and those for females are placed at the head of the diagram.

The most noticable feature of the comparison of the two curves is the marked discrepancy shown between the numbers of children at the earlier ages as given by the two calculations. According to Mr. Hardy's calculations, there should be 3,657 males and 3,593 females per 100,000 of each sex under one year of age. Subsidiary Table I, which gives the recorded ages of 100,000 of each sex from certain selected charges shows only 2,131 males and 2,251 females under one year of age from the same population. The discrepancy would not have been quite so great if instead of taking 100,000 persons of each sex from the selected charges, the proportions had been worked out from the total records for the province. Subsidiary Table III shows that the number of infants recorded under one year of age for the whole province is proportionately somewhat greater than those recorded for the selected charges. The over-estimation of the ages of children, leading to the record of a smaller number of children at the earlier ages, operates effectively till the age of four in the case of both sexes. From that year the numbers of males and females at each age period, corrected by the elementary method of averages, is greater than the probable numbers as deduced This enhancement of the number of persons from five by actuarial calculations years and upwards over the probably true numbers is the inevitable result of the under record for the years preceding five years of age. In the case of females the recorded ages are on an average above the probable true number of females from the age of five till the age of 47, after which period the average recorded numbers of females remain below the probable true numbers. In the case of males, the variations of the average recorded numbers from the probable true numbers are much greater. The excess from the age of five continues until the age of fourteen; thence, probably in anticipation of the Capitation Tax assessment at the age of eighteen, the average recorded numbers fall below the probable true numbers, continuing below till the age of twenty-seven. From twenty-eight to fortynine, the recorded numbers remain above the true numbers, falling below them at that age until the approach of the Capitation Tax exemption age of 60 approaches, when the average recorded numbers again rise above the probable true numbers.

It is obvious that the age returns as recorded, and even as corrected by the elementary process of averaging over periods of five and ten years, are not sufficiently accurate to be taken as the basis of any detailed conclusions. The preparation of life tables from the age returns is an actuarial operation of the most technical and complicated character. It is necessary to await the Actuary's report and calculations, before any but the most general deductions from the ages recorded can be drawn. Quite apart from the want of accuracy in the age returns, the investigation of the age distribution of the people of Burma is a matter of great intricacy. If the returns are examined for the Province as a whole, the successive extensions of the census area renders a survey over more than one census

	Ind	ian Populat	ion.
Age.	Total.	Non- Immi- grant-	Immi- grant.
1	2	3	4
0-1	12,530	7,739	4,791
1-2	12,407	7,585	4,822
2-3	16,416	0.143	7,273
3-4	17,597	10,381	7,2.6
4-5	15,281	9,332	5,919
o —5	74,231	44,180	30,051
510	67,945	43,743	24,202
10-15	57,694	38,479	19,215
15-20	72,797	30,254	42,543
20-25	114,921	26,587	88,334
25—30	121,940	25,156	90,784
30—35	103,939	24,192	79,747
35—40	62,075	20,066	42,009
40-45	55,623	18,116	37,507
45-50	25,287	12,670	12,617
5055	26,506	12,262	14,244
5560	9,560	7,816	1,744

13,135

... 817,783 324,084

70 and over

Total

9,018

7,319

4,117

534

493,699

Age distribution of Indian Population.

period unreliable, and if they are examined by natural divisions, the age distribution is complicated by the large amount of internal migration, and the irregular distribution of immigrants from beyond the limits of the Province.

105 Age Distribution of Immigrant Population.—The presence of a large number of immigrants from India, among whom persons from adult to middle age greatly preponderate, affects the age distribution of the population as a whole to a considerable The following method enables the amount of disturbance from this source to be The non-immigrant population can be roughly estimated by deducting the number of persons born in India, as given in Imperial Table XIII, from the total number of Hindus and Mahomedans, as shown in Imperial Table VI. Assuming that the age distribution of the established, or non-immigrant Indian population, in Burma is proportionately the same as that of the Buddhists, the age distribution of the immigrant

population can be estimated. In the first marginal statement, column 2 gives the actual age distribution of the Hindus and Mahomedans resident in

Column 3 gives the age distribution of the established Indian population, calculated on the assumption that it is proportionate to the age distribution of the Buddhist popula-The difference in column 4 gives a fair estimate of the ages of the 493,669 Indian immigrants into Burma. Up to the age of 15, the small numbers of young immigrants is clearly apparent. From 15 to 20, the number of immigrants approaches the proportions of the established population. From 20 to 45, the proportions of immigrants are largely in excess of the proportions of the established population, the excess culminating in the age period 25 to 30. From 45 onwards the death-rate operating among the immigrants, and the comparatively small numbers arriving over that age, reduces the

Age distribu Im	tion of 10,00 migrant pop	o Buddhis ulation.	sts and
Age.	Buddhist.	Immi- grant.	Differ- ence.
0—5 5—10 10—15 15—20 20—25 25—30 30—35 35—40 40—45 45—50 50—55 50—65 65—70 70 and over	1,363 1,350 1,187 934 820 776 747 619 559 391 379 241 278 130 226	609 490 389 862 1,789 7,960 1,615 760 256 289 35 83	-754 -860 -798 -72 +963 +1,184 +868 +232 +201 -135 - 90 -206 -195 -119 -225

proportions of immigrants much below the proportions of the established population. The second marginal statement exhibits the difference in the proportional age distribution of the Buddhists, who may be taken as typical of the established population, and of the immigrant Indians. It is possible to estimate the extent of the disturbance produced by the immigrant population by comparing the age-distribution of the total population with that for Buddhists only. As the great majority of the immigrants are males, the difference can best be considered by keeping the figures for the two sexes separate. The third marginal statement shows the extent to which the proportions of males below 20 years of age and above 45 years of age are diminished by immigration, while the proportions

between the ages of 25 are increased from the same cause. The same uniformity is not apparent in the figures for females, partly because their numbers are so small that they do not affect the proportions to the same extent, and partly because adult female immigrants are accompanied by their It is quite children. natural to expect that immigration women, which was operative principally in increasing the proportions of females between 20 and 30 years of age, should be accompanied by an increase in the proportions of children

Difference betwe	en age distr	ibution, per Budd	10,000, of hists only.	the genera	I populatio	n and of
		Males.			Females.	
Age.	Total population.	Buddhists.	Difference	Total population.	Buddhists.	Difference
1	2		4	5	6	7
0—I I—2 2—3 3—4 4—5 0—5 5—10 10—15 15—20 20—25 25—30 30—35 35—40 40—45 45—50 50—55 55—60 60—65 65—70 70 and over	218 217 266 302 269 1,272 1,276 1,163 893 857 860 846 677 594 399 370 223 263 124 183	234 233 280 321 286 1,354 1,355 1,236 899 775 760 767 656 566 409 373 241 278 133 198	-16 -14 -19 -17 -82 -79 -73 -6 +82 +100 +79 +21 +28 -10 -3 -18 -15 -9 -16	241 236 289 323 291 1,380 1,341 1,126 967 884 810 737 578 578 365 384 231 272 122 246	243 235 284 320 290 1,372 1,344 1,140 966 864 792 727 584 552 374 384 242 278 128 253	- 2 + 1 + 5 + 3 + 1 + 8 - 3 - 14 + 20 + 18 + 10 - 6 - 7

between 1 and 5 years
of age, and this is exactly what the figures indicate. The children accompanying
female immigrants are of both sexes, and the probability is that they are in
approximately equal proportions; but whereas the number of male immigrant children compared with the number of male immigrants is exceedingly small, the
number of female immigrant children would form a high proportion of the total
number of female immigrants.

106. General Review of Age Distribution.—The age distribution of the population in 1911 corresponds generally to what might have been anticipated from the age distribution of the two previous decades, and from a consideration of

the conditions of the past decade. Thus, there is a diminution in the proportionate number of children under five years of age, due in all probability to the cessation

Age distribution o	f 10,000 of t	he total p	opulation.
Age period.	1911	1901	1891
0~5 5—10 10—15 15—20 20—40 40—60 60 and over	1,326 1,308 1,144 930 3,125 1,562 605	1,398 1,257 1,005 918 3,210 1,544 608	1,371 1,270 1,170 967 3,083 1,514 625

of the era of rapid expansion, which was observable about the middle of the period 1901—1911. The age periods 5 to 10, 10 to 15, and 15 to 20, show increases in their proportionate numbers, corresponding to the era of rapid expansion, after the settlement of Upper Burma, and during the colonisation of the delta districts. The decrease in the proportionate population between the ages 20 and 40, from 3,210 to 3,125 per 10,000, during dowed by decreases in the proportions for age

the decade 1901 to 1911, is foreshadowed by decreases in the proportions for age periods 10 to 15 and 15 to 20, in the previous decade, which are themselves the

Age distrib	ution of 10,	ooo Buddhis	sts.
Age period.	1911	1901	1891
0-5 5-10 10-15 15-20 20-40 40-60 60 and over	1,363 1,349 1,188 933 2,963 1,570 634	1,438 1,289 1,095 919 3,078 1,549 632	1,400 1,298 1,205 973 2,948 1,525 651

resultant of the disturbed conditions prevailing between 1881 and 1891. It is necessary to remember that the decreases are proportionate only, and are due, not to any decrease in the actual figures, but to their lower rates of increase compared with the figures in other categories. The age distribution of 10,000 Buddhists corresponds in its features of comparison with previous decades with that for the total population. The proportions for

the two mediant periods 15 to 20 and 20 to 40 are, however, less, and those for the extreme periods of youth and age are greater than the proportions for the total population of the province.

107. Mean age.—In 1901, Mr. Lowis, having calcuated the mean age of the two typical selections of 100,000 of the population of each sex, as recorded

	Total po	pulation.	Budo	lhists.
Year.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1891 1901	24.76 25.04 25.32	24.08 54.40 54.01	24'49 24'71 25'02	24'74 24'86 25'11

in Subsidiary Table IVA of Chapter IV of the Census Report for that year, came to the conclusion that the results were not what would be expected in a community where the stronger sex is more likely to be recruited from without than the weaker. The marginal statement gives the mean age of the Buddhist population, male and female, as well as of the total population, and

enables the effect of migration on the mean age to be estimated. Among the conclusions it suggests are:—

(i) That the mean age of Buddhist females is higher than the mean age of Buddhist males.

(ii) That the effect of immigration is to enhance the mean age of the total male population above the mean age of the Buddhist male population.

(iii) That the effect of immigration is to depress the mean age of the total female population below the mean age of the Buddhist female population.

(iv) That the contrary action of immigration on the mean age of the male and female populations results in the mean age of the total male population exceeding the mean age of the total female population.

The first, second, and fourth of these conclusions are natural, and correspond to anticipation. The higher mean age among Buddhist females is due to the relative greater mortality among males. The effect of the immigration of such large numbers of males between the ages of 20 and 45, necessarily raises the mean age of the males, and is sufficient to counteract the initial excess in the mean age of the indigenous females and turn the scale in a contrary direction. But the depression of the mean age of the female population by immigration is by no means to be anticipated. It may be explained by a reference to the final marginal statement in paragraph 105. It is there seen that female immigration not only raises the ages of the female population between the ages of 15 and 25, it also raises it between the ages of two and five. Whereas the immigration of men has no necessary connection with the immigration of children, it is highly probable that women arriving in the province will be accompanied by one or more children. These children will naturally be of both sexes, but whereas the

number of male children in proportion to the total number of male immigrants would be too small to effectively depress the mean age when the whole were amalgamated with the indigenous population, the number of female children would be a large proportion of the total number of female immigrants, and the resultant would be a depression of the mean age of the total population below that of the indigenous Buddhists. It is important to note that the increase in the mean age noticeable since 1891 does not necessarily indicate greater longevity of population. It may indicate a decline in the birth-rate, or a higher infantile mortality, reducing the relative numbers of children in comparison with those of adult age. A decadent race with a low birth-rate would probably show a progressive increase in the mean age of its population, due to the comparative absence of children. Of course the contrary conclusion is equally incorrect. A rise in the mean age, though it would necessarily accompany decadence, does not necessarily imply it. No general conclusion can be deduced merely from a rise in the mean age without an examination of many accompanying circumstances.

108. Birth and death-rates from age records.—In his Memorandum on the age Tables and Rates of Mortality of the Indian Census of 1901, Mr. Hardy, while calculating the death-rate for the populations of remaining large provinces, emits to calculate that for Burma. He explains that even considering the Buddhist population only, and consequently eliminating any serious difficulties as to immigration, the recorded rate of increase of population is much higher than the true figures. An approximate method of estimating the birth and death-rates for the Province is by utilising the mean age of the population. It has been seen that the mean age is .5'32 and 25'02 for males, according as the Buddhist or the total population is considered, and 24'9S and 25'11 for the total females, and for Buddhist females, respectively. Assuming it to be 25, this would give a death-rate of 1000±25, or 40 per thousand per annum. Assuming also, with Mr. Hardy, that the natural rate of increase is 11 per thousand, per annum, the birth and death-rates deduced from the records of ages are 52 and 40 per thousand, per annum,

respectively. It is possible from these deduced rates to estimate the correctness of the record of the vital statistics of the province. Even admitting that the deduced birth and death-rates of 52 and 40 are but the roughest of approximations, it is obvious that the degree of omission in the record of the vital statistics is extremely high, amounting to as many as ten per thousand in the case of deaths and fifteen per thousand in the case of births. It may be suggested that the age returns are so unreliable that it is possible that the error lies in the birth and death-rates deduced from them, rather than in the returns of vital statistics. But a death-rate of 40 per thousand in Burma is much more probably correct than rates vary-

Record	led Brith ar	nd Death-r population		ousand	
Year,	Birth	-rate.	Death-rate.		
10.11.	Upper Burna.	Lower Burma.	Upper Burma.	Lower Burma.	
1901 1902 1903 1904 1905 1906 1907 1908 1909	37'66 38'01 37'48 35'05 34'17 33'14 36'32 37'10 37'13	32'07 31'57 33'54 32'71 34'34 32'30 32'05 34'00 35'27 35'40	· · · ·	20.62 21.16 24.13 22.36 24.93 27.15 26.84 28.06 27.70 26.99	

ing from 1869 to 3481. The estimated death-rates for the remaining provinces, calculated from the registered deaths, tend to average over 40, rather than under

that figure; and even for the figures quoted in the marginal statement, Mr. Hardy remarks that they must not be taken as definite determinations of the death-rates prevailing, as it is practically certain that the registration of the deaths of infants and quite young children is less complete than in the case at older ages, and that the death-rates given are no doubt somewhat under-estimated. It is therefore, highly probable that the deduced birth and death-rates of 52 and 40 per thousand respectively for Burma, are approximately correct, and that a quarter of the total number of deaths occurring, and over a quarter of the total number of births occurring, are omitted from the registration of vital statis-

Mr. Hardy's death-rates on a pulation 1891	mean po-
Province.	Death-rate
Bengal Bombay Madras North-West Punjab	38.3 42.4 43.4 40.3

tics. The large margin of error in the record, and the possibilities of progressive efficiency in their enumeration, render them of no assistance even in estimating the relative mortality for different years. As an instance, the statistics for infantile mortality in Upper and Lower Burma, as given in Subsidiary. Table

IX, may be quoted. In 1903, and 1905, the death-rate of children under one year of age in Upper Burma, as recorded, was considerably below the death-rate for Lower Burma. In 1907, and 1909, the corresponding death rates for Upper Burma were greater than those for Lower Burma. These statistics must not be taken to indicate that there has been a heavy increase in infantile mortality in Upper They tend to show that the record of deaths in Upper Burma is gradually Little advantage would accrue from a detailed becoming more complete. comparison of the variation and age distribution of the population as obtained from the census records, and the vital statistics, when there are so many sources of inaccuracy in both series of figures. As Mr. Hardy states in his Memorandum on the age Tables of the Census of 1901, the population tables might enable us to attempt some correction of the ages given in the returns of registered deaths, if one could safely make the assumption that the nature and extent of the errors in the statements of age for the purpose of death registration are similar to those of the errors in the census returns. The doubt attaching to this assumption would, however, render any conclusions based upon it of little value. He is of the opinion that it would appear to be hopeless, for many years to come, to expect anything like complete registration of births and deaths in India.

109. Variation in the birth-rate.—The figures for age distribution can be utilised for the purpose of estimating to what extent the birth-rate is varying. Comparing the proportionate number of children recorded under the age of 10, for the past three enumerations, there was an increase from 264 to 265 per thousand, between 1891 and 1911, and a diminution to 263 per thousand, in 1901. These slight variations for the province are the resultant of marked variations for its constituent natural divisions, the figures for which are affected by the large amount of internal migration, and the irregular distribution of external immigration among them. They are also affected by changes in the census area. The increase in the birth-rate, noticed by Mr. Lowis in his report for 1901,

Number of children und the populat		er 1,000	of
Area.	1911	1901	1891
Province Central Basin Deltaic Plains Northern Hill Districts Coast Ranges Specially Administered Territories,	263 266 260 251 267 269	265 268 267 248 249 257	264 256 272 226 276

has not continued. It was due to increase in the proportionate numbers of children in the Central Basin, and the Northern Hill Districts. The increase in the former was partly due to the migration of adults to the districts of the Deltaic Plains, and partly to a genuine increase in the birth-rate after the turbulent period following the war and the annexation of Upper Burma. The increase in the Northern Hill Districts was partly due to improved enumeration, and partly

to a genuine increase in the birth-rate, after the war. The diminution in the proportionate number of children since 1901 has operated in the two main

Number of children	n under pulation.		1,000 of
-	1911	1901	1891
All Classes Buddhists	263 271	265 272	264 269

divisions of the Central Basin and the Deltaic Plains. There has probably been a slight decline in the birth-rate which existed during the era of rapid expansion from 1891 to 1901. The disturbing effects of Indian immigration, and the addition of large areas containing animistic populations, are exhibited in the marginal statement. For Buddhists only, the proportionate number of children under ten, per thousand of the popula-

tion, increased by 3 from 1891 to 1901, whereas for the total population, the increase was one only. Similarly, for Buddhists only, the diminution in the proportion of children for the past decade has been one per thousand only, while for the total population, it has been two. Immigration and extensions of area have therefore operated to minimise the increase in the former period, and to magnify the decrease in the latter period. In the twenty years, 1891 to 1911, if the whole population be considered, there has been a diminution in the proportion of children from 264 to 263 per thousand, but if Buddhists only are considered, there has been an increase in the proportions, from 269 to 271 per thousand. From a general survey of the figures, it is probable that the same causes which led to a large immigration between 1891 and 1901, tended to enhance the birth-rate, and to increase the proportion of children among the indigenous population; and the causes which led to a decline in the immigration to the Province, towards the end

of the period 1901 to 1911, similarly tended to diminish the birth-rate and the proportionate number of children among the indigenous population.

An alternative method of estimating the variation in the birth-rate is by considering the proportion of children, not to the total population, but to the number

of married females between the ages of 15 and 40. Unfortunately, in addition to the want of reliance on the age records, themselves, the disturbing effects of changes of census areas, and of progressive efficiency of enumeration, robs the comparison of most of its value. It is not probable that the increase in the percentages from 173 to 190, in the Northern Hill Districts, from 1891 to 1911, is genuine; neither is the increase from 188 to 210, in the Specially Advainistered Territories, Letween 1901 and 1911 to be explained except by

Area.	. 1911	1501	1891
F * 1 * AJ &			,
Province	211	207	212
ertral Basin	213	214	214
reltaie Plains	.09	210	215
Setthern Hill Districts	190	170	173
out Ranges .	202	200	200
pecially Administered	216	153	

changes in the census area, and in the method or efficiency of record. The depression in the percentages from 212 to 207, for the period 1891 to 1901, and the acrease to 211 for 1911, are the resultants of too many questionable factors to be accepted without bestation. For Buddhists only, whether for the province or for Burma Proper, the proportion of children to married females has risen since 1891. For the Province, it was retarded in 1901, by the addition of the questionable tasults obtained from the inclusion of the Specially Administered Territories in the census area. The most reliable figures are those for Buddhists only, for Burma Proper. They indicate a progressive increase in the percentage from 209 in 1891 to 211 in 1991, and 214 in 1911. The figures for 1891 were unduly depressed by the war and the troublesome times following the annexation of

Upper Burma. The period of expanding prosperity which succeeded, and listed | Process establishmenter into aniel females | exclusion of the file decade 1001 | exclusion of the succession of the to 1911, is responsible for the successive increases. The cosention of the era of rapid expansion in the latter half of the past decade had not operated for sufficient time, for its effect, on the retardation of the birth-rate of the insigenous population, measured by the proportion of children to married females, to have made an appreciable impression on the previous rate of increase.

جامووهياتهايطلسافات ودوا بسياساتميان يادبوا الاساوا دواوا	-	**************************************	AND DESCRIPTION OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON OF THE PERSON
Pagadata sa	1,11	1,01	1891
Praince Province (Buddhists only).	211	207 203	:1: :05
Barma Proper Hurma Proper (Bud- adults only).	214	16) 211	209

110. Fecundity of various races.—Subsidiary Table IV would, if the age records could be relied upon, enable an estimate to be made of the relative

fecundity of the various races to be found in the Province. The figures are however to be received with great hesitation. The numbers of children among the Kachin; and the Chinese are small, because in Burma they are largely immigrant races. But even among the indigenous races not affected by immigration, the figures are of but little comparative value. For instance, it would be a highly doubtful assumption that the fecundity of the Talaings and the Wa Palaung races was in the ratio of 358 and 259 respectively because these are the relative proportions of the children of the two races recorded as living between the ages of o and 12; or that it was in a still more divergent ratio, because the relative proportions of children to females between the ages of 15 and 40 were more divergent than these numbers. The ages of children are

Race.	Number of children below 12 years of age per 1,000 of each sex.		
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Males.	Females.	
Talaing Karen Taungthu Chin Danu Shan Arakanese Wa Palaung Kachiu Chinese	355 330 360 318 292 287 207 251 233 160	362 338 306 322 317 270 283 267 222 268	

peculiarly liable to be given incorrectly, and it is not possible to assume that among different races the degree of error will be identical. There are so many different degrees of civilisation among the races of Burma, so many widely varying modes of life affecting the rates of mortality, that the records may be the

resultant of many other factors than different degrees of fecundity. The variations are a complex of such factors as the birth-rate, the mortality among children, the general longevity of the race, and the degree of error in recording ages, especially those of children. It is impossible to estimate, with any approach to approximation, to what extent the various factors have operated in producing the different proportions of children to the total population among different races.

III. Birth-rate calculated with reference to the number of married women between 14 and 45.—In paragraph 762 of the Census Report for India for the year 1901, it is suggested that the crude birth-rate per thousand of the population is not the most effective instrument to use in comparing the fecundity of various races. The birth-rate is dependent primarily on the number of women of child-bearing age (for India between 15 and 45), or rather on the number of married women between these ages, and a birth-rate calculated on the total population does not permit of effective comparisons with other races. For instance, it is found that whereas the crude birth-rate per thousand of the population is much higher in India than in England, what may be called the true birthrate, that is, the ratio of births to the number of married women of child-bearing age is higher in England than in India. This is due to two causes. In England, the number of persons at the non-productive ages, the very young and those past middle age, are in a much higher proportion than in India. Moreover, in India, marriage among females is much more universal than in England, the percentage of married females between the ages of 15 and 45 to the total number being 78 per cent. in India as against 47 per cent. in England. Owing to these two factors, the higher proportion of the population at reproductive ages, and the higher proportion of females at such ages who are married, the Indian birth-rate per thousand of the population is very high compared with the similar rate for England. But if measured by the number of married women between the ages of 15 and 45, the birth-rates are 247.5 per thousand, in India and 254.9 per thousand, in England, which is a slightly higher rate for the latter country. In Burma, the crude birth-rate of 52 per thousand of the population would be equivalent to a rate of 234 per thousand females, between the ages of 15 and 45, and 357 per thousand married females of such ages. It is, therefore, considerably above the rate for England, whichever method of calculation is adopted.

SUBSIDIARY TABLE I.—Age distribution of 100,000 of each sex by annual age periods. (Buddhist only.)

Age.	Male.	Female.	Age.	Male.	Female.
ī	2	3	1	2	3
0 1 2 3 4 5	2,131 -2,479 2,979 3,238 2,882 2,857	2,251 2,611 3,058 3,344 2,885 2,963	51 52 53 54 55 56	345 539 419 348 1,022 526	. 325 522 450 350 956 465
6 7 8 9	2,966 2,451 2,847 2,162 3,629	2,999 2,643 2,915 2,063 3,458	57 58 59 60 61	375 344 229 1,330 318	393 365 240 1,459 248
11	1,91.4	1,799	62	436	289
12	2,788	2,554	63	372	267
13	2,203	2,103	64	244	195
14	1,862	1,737	65	632	612
15	2,238	2,349	66	196	141
16	1,721	1,880	67	274	270
17	1,636	2,001	68	163	156
18	1,866	2,270	69	88	99
19	1,523	1,694	70	692	975
20	3,087	3,574	71	98	104
21	1,076	1,195	72	148	136
22	1,483	1,563	73	123	107
23	1,488	1,537	74	60	62
24	1,091	1,176	75	225	220
25	2,976	3,012	76	93	62
27	1,269	1,187	77	57	39
26	1,279	1,182	78	62	69
28	1,265	1,267	79	32	34
29	912	963	80	227	347
30	3,510	3,252	81	23	28
31	774	781	S2	17	17
32	1,133	1,185	83	24	26
33	1,093	927	84	11	9
34	746	773	85	45	47
35	2,546	2,064	86	11	15
36	992	959	87	11	8
37	1,111	863	88	7	10
38	1,061	1,935	89	6	5
39	845	731	90	35	45
40	2,633	2,528	91	2	1
41	588	551	92	6	2
42	972	877	93	6	4
43	740	795	94	2	1
44	608	616	95	7	17
45	1,780	1,584	96	16	7
46 47 48 49 50	1,844 680 619 684	610 591 620 368 1,838	97 98 99 100	1 6 2 7	3 4 5 8

Subsidiary Table Ia.—Adjustment of age distribution of 100,000 males by Bloxham's method.

Bioniam's method,								
Age.	As Recorded,	Intermediate Adjustment,	Final Adjustment.	Age.	As Recorded.	Intermediate Adjustment.	Final Adjustment.	
1	2	3	4	) 	State of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state	3		
0 1 2 3 4 5	2,131 2,479 2,970 3,238 2,882 2,857	2,131 2,530 2,742 2,887 2,984 2,879	2,131 2,468 2,655 2,708 2,714 2,699	51 53 54 55 56	345 539 419 318 1,012 520	744 706 514 578 533 543	698 666 641 611 588 563	
6 7 8 9	3,629 2,966 2,451 2,162 2,162	2,801 2,657 2,811 2,601 2,665	2,737 2,734 2,686 2,621 2,526	57 58 50 60 61	375 341 229 1,330 318	400 561 519 531 537	554 524 500 438 467	
11 12 13 14 15	1,914 2,788 2,263 1,862 2,238	2,55t 2,49t 2,213 2,174 1,944	2,434 2,343 2,380 2,192 2,110	62 63 64 65 66	336 372 244 632 199	540 400 376 314 302	4-11 4-24 397 371 34-1	
16 17 18 19 20	1,721 1,636 1,866 1,523 3,087	1,865 1,707 1,967 1,838 1,807	2,0,14 1,95,2 1,873 1,823 1,773	67 68 69 70 71	274 163 88 692 98	271 283 263 233 230	316 278 254 230 203	
21 22 23 24 25	1,076 1,483 1,488 1,091 2,976	1,731 1,645 1,623 1,661 1,621	1,739 1,710 1,606 1,658 1,629	72 73 74 75 76	148 123 60 225 93	274 131 .130 112 99	189 173 154 137	
26 27 28 29 30	1,269 1,279 1,265 912 3,510	1,576 1,540 1,647 1,548 1,519	1,600 1,574 1,557 1,528 1,495	77 78 79 80 81	57 62 32 227 23	94 94 80 72 65	106 87 77 67 59	
31 32 33 34 35	774 1,133 1,093 746 2,546	1,484 1,451 1,458 1,302 1,296	1,465 1,441 1,420 1,384 1,355	83 83 84 85 86	17 24 11 45	60 24 22 20 17	51 44 37 30 25	
36 37 38 39 40	992 1,111 1,061 845 2,633	1,328	1,322 1,288 1,241 1,196 1,159	87 88 89 90 91	11 7 6 35 2	16 14 12 11	20 15 13 12 10	
41 42 43 44 45	588 972 740 608 1,780	1,108 938 957	1,078 1,036 986	92 - 93 - 91 - 95 - 96	6 6 2 7 16	5 7 6 6	9 9 8 7 6	
46 47 48 49 50	684 686 619 421 1,844	837 850 1 782	854 803 770	97 98 99 100	1 6 2 7	6 6 5 7	6 6 · 6 7	

Subsidiary Table IB.—Adjustment of age distribution of 100,000 females by Bloxham's method.

\				i's method -			-
Age.	As Recorded.	Intermediate Adjustment,	Final Adjustment.	Age.	As Recorded.	Intermediate Adjustment.	Final Adjustment.
1	2	3	. 4	1	2	3	· 4
3 + 5	2,251 2,011 3,058 3,344 2,885 2,963	2,251 2,640 2,830 2,972 3,050 2,967	2,251 2,574 2,749 2,799 2,792 2,751	51. 52 53 54 55 56	3 <sup>2</sup> 5 5 <sup>2</sup> 2 450 350 956 4 <sup>6</sup> 5	701 697 521 539 523 506	667 638 622 598 577 556
6 7 8 9	2,999 2,643 2,915 2,063 3,458	2,881 2,717 2,816 2,576 2,558	2,764 2,736 2,670 2,593 2,499	57 58 59 60 61	393 305 240 1,459 248	484 584 541 520 501	537 503 483 461 438
11 13 13 14 15	1,799 2,554 2,103 1,737 2,349	2,395 2,330 2,108 2,125 2,014	2,415 2,339 2,299 2,238 2,191	62 63 64 65 66	289 267 195 612 141	492 322 301 297 275	416 402 378 355 334
16 17 18 19 20	1,880 2,001 2,270 1,694 3,574	2,047 2,039 2,284 2,147 2,059	2,133 2,080 2,022 1,984 1,938	67 68 69 70 71	270 156 99 975 204	256 328 321 294 284	313 280 261 · 243 224
21 22 23 24 25	1,195 1,563 1,537 1,176 3,012	1,913 1,809 1,697 1,695 1,619	1,898 1,850 1,807 1,735 1,675	72 73 74 75 76	136 107 62 220 62	277 126 117 98 90	207 194 173 153 134
26 27 28 29 30	1,187 1,182 1,267 963 3,252	1,565 1,522 1,570 1,489 1,490	1,617 1,569 1,509 1,462 1,410	77 78 79 80 81	39 69 34 347 28	85 110 103 99 90	116 93 84 75 68
31 32 33 34 35	781 1,185 927 773 2,064	1,422 1,384 1,146 1,182 1,117	1,366 1,326 1,299 1,260 1,229	82 834 84 86 86	17 26 9 47 15	85 25 23 21 18	61 55 +7 38 30
36 37 38 39 40	959 863 1,035 731 2,528	1,139 1,130 1,223 1,142 1,144	1,193 1,161 1,116 1,093 1,062	87 88 89 90 91	8 10 5 45 1	17 17 14 13 11	23 16 14 13
41 42 43 44 45	551 877 795 616 1,584	1,096 1,073 • 1885 896 839	1,034 999 969 926 889	92 93 94 95 96	2 4 1 17 - 7	5 6 6 6	10 9 8 8 7
46 47 48 49 50	610 591 620 368 1,838	804 755 805 748 735	849 813 762 731 697	97 98 99 100	3 4 5 8	7 5 6 8	6 6 6 8

Subsidiary Table Ic.—Age distribution of 100,000 Buddhists of each sex calculated by Mr. Hardy from the Census Tables of 1901.

Agr.	Main	Female.	Y2sr	Male.	Female.
	*	3	ı	2	S - The second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second s
3 4 5		3.593 3,-273 3,071 2,010 2,814 2,721	51 52 53 54 55 50	707 679 651 624 597 571	700 676 652 638 605 583
6 7 8 9	2,582 2,517 2,400 2,407 2,357	2,643 2,643	57 58 59 60 61	545 520 495 470 445	560 538 515 493 473
12 14 13 13	2,311 2,265 2,221 2,176 2,131	2,365 2,317 2,168 2,217 2,167	63 63 64 65 66	421 397 373 349 326	450 428 405 381 359
15 17 13 13 19	2,086 2,040 1,975 1,943 1,944	2,11,6 104,6 804,6 256,1		303 283 258 236 214	337 315 293 271 249
31 23 24 25	1,558 1,513 1,721 1,721 1,077	1,848 1,774 1,740 1,630 1,633	72 73 74 75 70	193 173 153 134 116	227 205 183 163
16 27 24 43	1,632 1,544 1,541 1,541	1,582 1,533 1,433 1,433	77 73 79 81	100 84 70 57 46	123 105 88 72 59
\$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$ \$	6,17e 6,17e 1,77a 1,77a 1,71a 1,71a	1,541 1,17) 1,157 1,16 1,175	83 83 84 85	36 25 31 15 15	47 37 28 20
5.5 5.5 5.6 6.5 8.0	8,338 8,338 8,879 8,875 8,875 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006 8,006	#1537 #1504 #1664 #165# *****	87 83 84 84 84	5	5 5
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SUBSIDIARY TABLE II.—Age distribution of 10,000 of each sex in the Province and each Natural Division.

	19	11.	199	)1. ·	18	)1.
Age.	Males,	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4 .	5	б.	7 .
				-		př.
Province		•••••				•••••
0— 1 1— 2 2— 3 3— 4 4— 5	218 217 266 302 269	241 236 289 323 291	228 248 293 309 272	252 266 315 326 287	280 210 270 312 253	310 226 286 327 268
0— б	1,272	1,380	1,350	1,446	1,325	1,417
5—10 10—15 15—20 20—25 25—30 30—35 35—40 40—45 45—50 50—55 55—60 60—65 65—70 70 and over	1,276 1,163 893 857 860 846 677 594 399 370 223 263 124 183	1,341 1,126 967 884 810 737 578 557 365 384 231 272 122 246	1,232 1,088 874 888 909 877 648 567 396 381 231	1,282 1,042 961 929 857 766 547 523 361 393 236	1,247 1,192 912 913 881 799 635 553 389 366 222 566	1,293 1,148 1,022 910 806 684 539 514 358 393 232 684
Central Basin		•••••				•••••
0 5 5	1,362 1,336 1,213 888 2,910 1,618 673	1,341 1,290 1,113 926 2,851 1,657 822	1,473 1,283 1,120 840 2,979 1,639 666	1,416 1,204 1,000 899 2,983 1,655 843	1,364 1,264 1,227 909 2,942 1,593 701	1,324 1,169 1,075 983 2,919 1,630 900
Deltaic Plains		•••••		•••••		•••••
0— 5 5—10 10—15 15—20 20—40 40—60 60 and over	1,200 1,199 1,167 911 3,548 1,478 497	1,426 1,382 1,191 1,018 3,123 1,387 473	1,290 1,188 1,118 914 3,582 1,443 465	1,522 1,355 1,146 1,041 3,143 1,314 479	1,319 1,216 1,180 922 3,427 1,467 469	1,543 1,375 1,189 1,083 2,929 1,375 506
Northern Hill Districts		*****				•••••
0— 5 5—10 10—15 15—20 20—40 40—60 60 and over	1,231 1,159 1,028 848 3,459 1,809 466	1,376 1,258 1,080 923 3,114 1,659 590	1,267 1,086 922 856 3,629 1,789 453	1,418 1,206 931 938 3,227 1,663 617	1,070 978- 912 836 4,068 1,628 508	1,308 1,175 1,036 932 3,265 1,584 700
Coast Ranges	•••••	*****			•••••	*****
0— 5 5—10 10—15 15—20 20—40 40—60 60 and over	1,270 1,271 1,143 897 3,356 1,570 493	1,417 1,401 1,123 995 3,089 1,461 514	1,269 1,267 1,143 926 3,382 1,534	1,002 1,146 1,216 1,100 3,216 1,507 513	1,308 1,321 1,185 910 3,306 1,408 472	1,475 1,428 1,178 1,044 3,017 1,398 460
Specially Administered Territories.	•••••	•••••			•••••	••••••
0 — 5 5—10 10—15 15—20 20—40 40—60 60 and over	1,281 1,422 1,092 867 2,930 1,757 651	1,334 1,347 997 927 3,079 1,602 714	1,330 1,229 903 790 3,239 1,793 716	1,332 1,253 800 851 3,333 1,654 777		•••••
Mean age for Province	25.32	24.98	25.04	24.76	24.76	24.61

SUBSIDIARY TABLE III.—Age distribution of 10,000 of each sex for Buddhist Population.

Age.	191	1;	190	1.	189	11.
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1	3	3	4	5	G	7
o— 1	231	243	245	255	298	312
1 2	233	235	265	266	271	22.1
2— 3	280	284	310	313	283	283
3 4	321	320	325	323	347	324
4 5	286	290	288	285	265	264
0 δ	1,364	1,372	1,433	1,442	1,393	1,407
5—10	1,355	1,344	1,301	1,277	1,309	1,286
10-15	1,236	1,140	1,143	1,0.16	1,255	1,155
12—20	. <b>8</b> 99	966	877	961	923	1,023
2025	775	864	828	917	8¿8	901
2530	760	792	828	850	791	795
30—35	767	727	799	756	728	676
35—40	656	584	620	552	623	544
40—45	566	552	539	521	537	514
45-50	409	374	407	369	400	363
50—55	373	381	383	395	370	396
5 <b>5—</b> 60	241	242	241	241	234	237
6065	278	278	)		-	
65—70	133	128	592	673	600	703
70 and over.	198	253	}			
Mean Ago	25.02	25 11	24.71	24.86	. 24.49	24.74

SUBSIDIARY TABLE IV.—Age distribution of 10,000 of each sex in certain races.

		;	Males. Nu	ımber per l	Mille aged	•	Fen	nales. 1	Number	per Mille	aged.
Race		0-5.	5-12.	12-15.	15-40.	40 and over.	0-5.	5-12.	12-15.	15-40.	40 and
Talaing		1 <u>5</u> 8	197	73	382	190	159	203	71	- 398	169
Karen		141	189	68	399	203	147	191	68	413	181
Aràkanese		108	159	70	439	224	114	169	65	434	218
Shan		126	161	ó.∔	402	247	117	153	57	407	266
Chin		138	180	6.4	402	216	147	175	48	425	205
Kachin	•••	75	158	82	453	232	86	136	61	181	235
Wa-Palaung		128	123	67	421	261	122	145	57	420	256
Danu		128	164	.76	384	248	136	181	8o	377	226
Taungthu		180	180	65	353	222	141	165	94	405	195
Chinese .		66	. 100	40	565	229	120	148	67	442	223
									ĺ		

SUBSIDIARY TABLE V.—Proportion of children under 10 and of persons over 50 to those aged 15—40; also of married females aged 15—40 per 100 females.

m	Per	rsons aged	15-40-		ried Fer		10	11.	190	1 15-40		91.	per	ales aged 100 Fer of all age	males
District and Natural Division.	-	I sons aged		a <sub>l</sub>	ged 15-	40.	رب <b>د</b> 				105	- !		<u> </u>	<del></del>
	1911	1. 1901.	1891 <b>.</b>	1911.	1901.	1891.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	1911.	1901.	1891
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	 	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
						•						•			
Yhole Province .	6	5 64	65	211	207	212	28	32	28	31	28	33	26	26	1
Central Basin .	. 70	0 70	67	213	214	214	34	40	34	39	30	37	24	24	؛
Thayetmyo Pakokku Minbu Magwe Mandalay	. 7	8 65 4 74 60 67 72 73 66 56	72 71 73 71 69 50	198 198 223 210 245 188 218	207 199 220 203 244 186	207 216 231 222 249 166	28 32 34 33 31 30	30 33 40 40 37 40	28 29 34 35 31 30	29 32 42 41 35 42	29 27 31 35 26 25	33 32 41 44 31 38	26 27 24 25 31 25	26 27 24 24 22 25	
Sagaing Lower Chindwin Kyauksè Meiktila Yamèthin	7	69 73 77 78 78 64 60 73 75 71 71 76 75	59 66 72 46 71 73 72	244 236 186 244 208 240	191 236 227 163 244 215 2-15	179 221 241 136 243 240 244	39 37 42 39 35 31 35	45 44 50 46 40 36 40	38 37 46 36 35 30 36	41 52 42 38 34 40	29 35 43 29 28 25 29	34 41 48 35 33 31 37	23 21 21 25 21 26 22	25 22 21 29 22 26 21	
Deltaic Plains	6	61	65	209	210	215	25	26	23	25	21	25	27	27	
Hanthawaddy Tharrawaddy Pegu Bassein		21 21 57 68 65 65 62 67 66 66 66 66 66 66 66 66 66 66 66 66	73	211 205 208 207 213 209 220 212 244	220 214 229	214 220 214 223 227 218 229 194	14 25 26 26 26 26 25 27 25 27 25 27	22 26 27 25 28 25 28 26 27	16 23 24 24 25 25 23 35 27	24 25 25 24 26 28 25 26 22 26	-71	22 24 27 23 25 28 25 21 24	33 26 27 27 26 25 28 25 27 25 27 25 28	32 27 28 28 27 26 27 28 28 26 29	}
Northern Hill Districts	6	60 , 57	49	190	176	173	27	32	25	32	20	29	27	29	
Bhamo Myitkyina Katha Ruby Mines Upper Chindwin	?	53 49 45 42 70 66 55 50 65 63	 57 29		163 159 182 175 183		25 21 30 28 29	31 28 33 34 33	26 17 29 25 26	33 27 32 33 32	18  23 17 23	3 <sup>2</sup>  28 25 29	27 28 27 28 27 28	29 31 29 29 29	2 2 2
Coast Ranges		64 63	67	202	206	209	25	27	26	27	22	24	£8	28	2
Akyab Northern Arakan Kyaukpyu Sandoway Salween Amherst Tavoy Mergui		60 60 51 55 62 62 68 67 65 62 68 67 71 73 65 71	45 64 76 60 7-	133 168 199 210 241 258	197 206 244 250	217 203 244	25 31 38 25 26 29 26	34	24 29 30 25 24 24 31 26	27 29 33 27 20 24 31 25	19 21 26	24 19 28 27 16 20 30	31 35 29 29 26 22 26	30 35 20 28 28 25 22 27	3 3 2 2 2 2 2 2 2
Specially Administered Territories.		70 63	3	216	188		35	35	3 <i>5</i>	35		;	25	27	•••
Northern Shan States Southern Shan States Pakôkku Hill Tracts Chin Hills		74 63 69 6. 		228 212  212	rŠo	* ***	37 36 	3S 35 	33 34  46	37 33  52	•••	•••	24 · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	23 23	

## Subsidiary Table VI.—Variation in population at certain age periods.

Natural Division.	Period.	V	ariation per ce	ent. in popula	tion (increase	+ decrease -	-).
Matural Division,	· ·	All ages.	0-10.	10-15.	15-40.	40—бо	60 and over.
1 .	2	. 3	4	5	6	7	_ 8
Province	1901 – 1911	+ 16:17	+ 15.25	+ 24.72	+ 14.18	+ 17:42	+ 15.52
Central Basin {  Deltaic Plains {	1881—1891 1891—1901 1891—1901 1891—1901 1901—1911 1881—1891	 + 9'14 + 12'79 + 29'39 + 35'64 + 15'79	+ 14'34 + 11'87 + 21'75 + 33'17 + 12'71	- 1'32 + 23'90 + 26'07 + 29'53 + 20'65	+ 8.87 + 10.89 + 36.38 + 40.78 + 14.71	+ 12'01 + 12'16 + 28'02 + 31'72 + 20'15	+ 3°34 + 11°57 + 29°81 + 31°67 + 19°23
Northern Hill Dis-	1891—1991 1901—1911 1881—1891	+ 22.19	+ 178.05 + 23.34 + 18.32	+ 140°46 + 38°91 + 24°38	+ 13.8°07 + 17.88 + 21.67	+ 170°32 + 22°89 + 21°54	+ 124'83 + 20'57 + 36'02
Coast Ranges {	1891—1901	+ 73 + 15.57	- 2.28 + 15.67	+ 13'86	+ 2.49	+ 18.00	+ 4'24 + 20'27
Specially Adminis- { tered Territories. }	1901—1911 1891—1901 1881—1891	+ 26.03	+ 31*24	 + 54°95	 + 19°94	+ 23.03	+ 15.35

### SUBSIDIARY TABLE VII.—Reported birth-rate by sex and Natural Division.

		Number o	of births per 1	,000 of total P	opulation (Co	ensus of 1901).		_	
Year.	Province.		Centra	l Basin.	Deltaio	Plains.	Coast Ranges.		
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females	
- 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
1901	16.6	15'5			16.6	15'4	15'9	14.7	
1902	16.3	15'3	•••	\	16.1	16.1	16.4	15.00	
1903	174	16.5	•••	'''	17°2 16°7	1	16.8	15°08	
1901	16.0	15.8	•••		17.3	15°5 16°4	17*1	15.6	
1905	17.7	16'7 15'6	•••	:::	16.2	15.4	16.5	14.8	
1906 1907	16.0	15'9	17.1	16.1	16.8	15.7	16.4	16.5	
1908	18.0	16.8	19.5	18.5	17.2	10.1	17.3	15'8	
1909	18.5	17.4	19.5	18.3	17.6	16.2	18.8	17.6	
1910	18.6	17'4	19.1	18.08	1Š*1	16'9	18.3	17'02	

Note 1.—No records of birth are taken in the Specially Administered Territories or in the Northern Hill Districts.

- 2. No records of birth are taken in the rural parts of Upper Burma prior to 1907.
- 3. The inclusion of births in towns in Upper Burma for the years 1901 to 1906 has slightly raised the birth-rate for the province for three years.

### SUBSIDIARY TABLE VIII.—Reported death-rate by sex and Natural Division.

		Numi	per of deaths	per 1,000 of to	tal Populatio	n (Census of :	1901).		
Ŷear.	Province.		Centra	1 Basin.	Deltaid	: Plains.	Coast Ranges.		
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	- Males.	Females	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8 .	9	
1901 1902 1903 1904 1905 1906 1977 1908 1909	12'5 10'7 12'5 11'3 13'5 14'5 14'4 15'2 16'1	9.8 9.1 10.7 2.7 11.03 12.4 12.1 13.1 14.5 13.1	11°2 9°6 11°7 14°07 13'2 15'8 17'5	 11'3 9'7 11' 13'8 13'1 15'4 17'2	12.7 12.2 13.9 12.8 14.6 15.5 15.3 15.9 16.04	9'7 9'3 10'7 9'9 11'04 11'8 11'1 12'3 12'4	11'07 10'9 12'1 11'5 12'05 12'4 15'6 13'4 12'8	8.3 8.2 9.04 8.9 9.6 9.4 12.1 10.8 9.07	

Subsidiary Table IX.—Reported death-rate by sex and age in decade and in selected years per mille living at same age according to the Census of 1901.

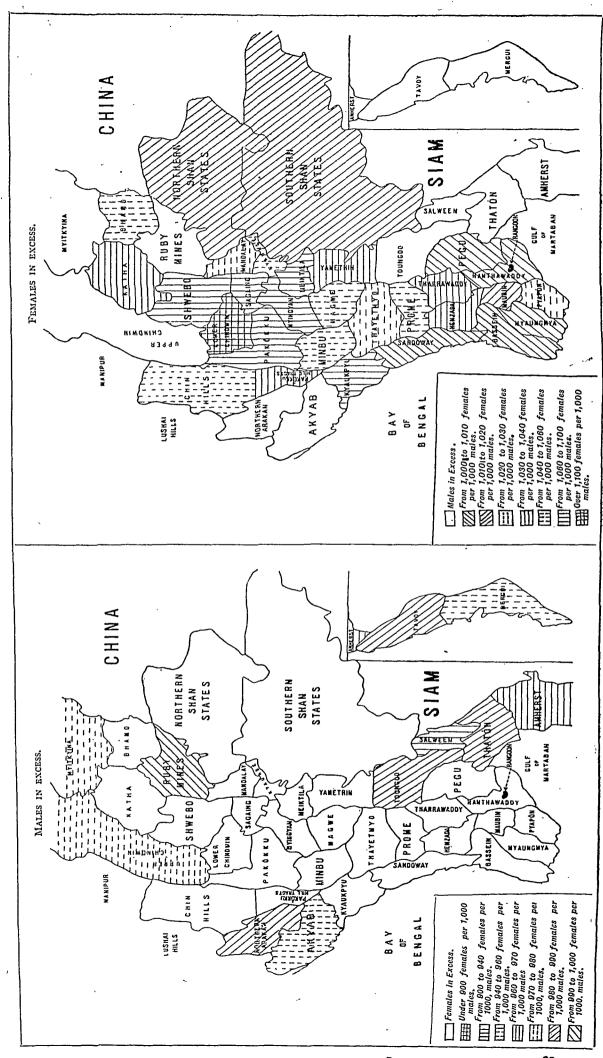
		•		Average	of decade.	19	юз.	19	o <u>5</u> .	19	007.	19	09.
	Age.	٠		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females
	Í		<del></del>	2	3	4	5 _	6	7	S	9	10	11
AII Ages	•••			27.28	24·49	24.6	22.0	25.5	22.6	28:3	24.3	31.6	28.8
Under	Upper	Burma	•••	277*18	202*40	190.12	142,21	245.78	- 1 <b>77°</b> 57	328.50	239'37	381.37	281.81
year.	Lower	Burma		331.04	237.86	331.80	227.83	336*79	239.88	297'70	212.43	369.93	276'05
1-5		Burma	•••	28.83	26.97	28.01	26.23	26.02	23.82	25.18	23.67	44.41	41.0
12	Lower		- •	28'97	25.42	29.16	25'37	30,58	26.24	30.01	25'33	29.70	27.08
5-10	{ Upper	Burma		11'45	10.62	10.10	9.28	9'97	8.78	12.26	11.66	18.40	16.67
J	Lower		•••	13.63	11,00	13.11	11.50	14.46	12.33	16.14	14.23	13.18	12.17
10-15	Upper	Burma	•••	7'50	6.86	6.28	6.51	6.23	2,cò	7.80	7.53	11.50	10.20
_	Lower	Burma	•••	10,73	8.41	9'73	8.2	10,11	9.06	11'66 12'87	9.04	9.20	8.4
15-20	Lower	Rurma	•••	9'57 15'72	8·36	9 <b>.3</b> 2	12.00 1.13	9'08 14'51	7.48 11.96	16.50	10.36	15 <sup>.</sup> 55	13*20
	(Unper	Burma	•••	0.81	11.21	10.18	11'20	10.05	10.04	11.20	11.41	15.67	16.38
20-30	Lower	Burma	•••	14.28	12.78	12.84	12.00	14.63	12.60	16.61	14.35	14.80	14.31
	(Upper	Burma Burma	•••	12'54	14.68	13.86	14.02	12.48	13.75	14.69	15.02	20'42	20'16
30-40	{1.ower	Burma	•••	17.31	17'07	15.99	16.20	16.97	16.30	21.00	19.39	10.03	19'37
4050	∫ Upper	Burma	•••	16.12	14.40	17.28	14.24	16.14	14.19	17.59	15.42	25.60	19'62
4030	Lower		•••	55.80	19.82	21.52	18 67	21.24	18.33	27.62	22.00	26.55	22.81
50—60	Upper	Burma	•••	24.18	21.49	26.20	21.64	26.28	20.83	27.82	21.88	36'31	27.57
60 &		Burma Burma	•••	28.83	24.10	28.29	23.69	25.79	23.36	32.86	27.56	32.88	27:34
over.	Lower	Burma	•••	62.20	61.73	62.63 26.10	56.20	66.13	60.21	70.69	62.85	91.65	80.57
Over.	£ 170" CI	Juina	••	0250	59:45	20.10	53'99	56.94	54*47	69.63	67.11	76.71	72,10

## Subsidiary Table X.—Reported deaths from certain diseases per mille of each sex.

			Fever.					Cholera.		
Year.	Actu	Actual No. of deaths.			er mille of	Acti	ıal No. of dea	ths.	Rates per mille of each sex.	
•	Total.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	S	9	10	11
1901 1902 1903 1904 1905 1906 1907 1908 1909	50,676 67,555 77,818 75,556 69,683 75,844 79,245 77,661 80,759 80,014	29,363 38,026 43,652 41,879 38,893 42,128 44,487 43,236 44,575 44,168	21,313 29,529 34,166 33,677 30,790 33,716 34,758 34,425 36,284 35,846	9'4 12'2 10'1 96 8'9 9'7 10'2 9'0 10'2	7.7 10.7 8.3 8.1 7.3 8.1 8.3 8.2 8.6 8.5	3,553 1,901 8,233 2,980 5,347 7,872 8,378 11,911 11,389 2,011	2,187 1,264 4,860 1,903 3,218 4,546 5,361 7,020 6,618 1,267	1,366 637 3,373 1,077 2,129 3,326 3,017 4,891 4,7 <b>7</b> 1 744	7 -4 1-1 -4 -7 1-0 1-2 1-6 1-5	'4 '2 '8 '2 '5 '8 '7 '1'1 '1

	-		Small-pox.					Plague.		
Year.	Actual No. of deaths.		iths.	Rates peac	er mille of h sex.	Act	ual No. of de	aths.	Rates per mille of each sex.	
	Total.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
	,12	13	1.4	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
1901 1902 1903 1904 1905 1906 1907 1908 1909	2,475 1,915 1,920 1,809 6,161 8,540 2,882 1,298 1,011 1,817	1,451 1,146 1,070 1,022 3,666 5,053 1,587 745 660 1,123	1,024 769 850 787 2,495 3,487 1,295 543 351 694	3 2 3 8 11 3 11	3 2 2 1 .6 .8 2 1 08	3 1 9 3 3,692 8,637 9,249 6,752 6,946 7,741	  2,599 5,208 5,431 3,975 4,372	  1,093 3,429 3,818 2,777 2,971 3,369	    5 1.2 1.2 1.2  9	

MAPS SHEWING PROPORTIONS OF THE SEXES (NATURAL POPULATION).



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The difference between these proportions and those in Northern Europe is generally supposed to be due to immigration, but this is not the full explanation. An excess of males is tound, not only amongst immigrants, but also in the native white population born of native parents, amongst whom there are 104 males for every 100 females. The disparity in their case must be wholly due to natural causes. Amongst the native whites born of foreign parents, the number of each sex approaches equality. The negro population shows a slight preponderance of females, the proportion being 989 males to 100 females.

The excess of males in the native white population born of native parents is ascribed by the local census authorities to the fact that while as elsewhere the number of males at birth exceeds that of females, and the male mortality is greater than the female, the general deathrate is relatively so much lower that the excess mortality amongst males does not produce equality in the number of the sexes at so early an age as in Europe; consequently, in the population at all ages, the slightly greater male deathrate does not overcome the initial advantage which males have at birth. Amongst the native white population born of foreign parents, the general rate of mortality is higher; consequently, the males lose the advantage which they had at birth, and equality in the sex proportions results.

The final sex proportions of the population born in any country are therefore seen to be the resultant of four factors:—

(i) the degree of excess of males at birth,

(ii) the degree of excess of male mortality in the early years of life, (iii) the age at which the excess of male mortality begins to decline,

(iv) the subsequent variations in the relative male and female mortalities.

These are the factors determining the sex proportions in the population born in a country; if the sex proportions of the population resident in a country are to be considered then the factor of migration operates in addition to those already recounted.

114. Effect of migration on sex proportions.—Apart from what may be termed the natural influences operating to modify the initial excess of males born in any country, migration exercises a decided influence on sex proportions. The fact that migration, especially migration from one country to another, is usually a movement of males, with a tendency in one constant direction, operates to deplete the proportion of males in the country of emigration, and to increase it in the country of immigration. It is most important to separate as far as possible the effects of mortality and migration on the sex-proportions of a country. This is effected by calculating the sex-proportions for the natural population or persons

were 963 and 962 females per thousand males respectively. The unduly low proportion of females in India gave rise to considerable controversy which has been summarised by Mr. Gait as follows:—

According to the vital statistics, the proportion of males at birth in India is slightly in excess of the European average. The difference however, even if real, is not sufficient to account for the relatively high proportion of males, as compared with females, in the enumerated population; and what we have to consider is whether this is due to an incomplete enumeration of females at the Census, or to local conditions which induce a relatively higher mortality of females as compared with Europe.

In the Census Report for 1891, it was stated that in most parts of India there was a tendency, in a greater or less degree, to omit from the Census record girls of from 9 to 15 and wives of from 15 to 20. In the report for 1901, while the possibility of some omissions having occurred was not denied, it was suggested that the local conditions of India, tending to produce a relatively high mortality amongst females, were sufficient to account for the proportions disclosed by the Census figures. These conditions may be briefly summarized as follows:—

(1) Female infanticide—comparatively rare at the present day.

(2) Neglect of female infant-life common amongst castes where the procuring of a bridegroom is a matter of considerable expense.

(3) Infant-marriage and premature sexual intercourse and child-bearing.

(4) A very high birth-rate.(5) Unskilful midwifery.

(6) Abortions, e.g., in the case of pregnant widows.

(7) Confinement and bad feeding of women at puberty, during their menstrual period, and after child birth.

(8) The hard life of widows.

(9) The hard labour which women of the lower classes have to perform.

While admitting the importance of the above factors, several German critics, including von Mayr and Kirchhoff, summaries of whose remarks on the subject have been circulated, are of opinion that they are not in themselves sufficient to account for the deficiency of females disclosed by the Census figures, and that this deficiency must be due largely to omissions from the Census record. Their reasons are:—

- (1) The *a priori* probability of omissions in view of the reticence of certain classes regarding their females, and the absence of any sufficient explanation of the difference in the proportions, as compared with Europe.
- (2) The fact that at each successive enumeration there has been a rise in the proportion of females.
- (3) The very low proportion of females to males at certain ages when omissions would a priori be expected to occur.
- (4) The fact that the vital statistics, like those in Europe, disclose a relatively lower female mortality, and that in this respect they are confirmed by the conclusions drawn by Mr. Hardy from an examination of the age returns of the last Census.

A reference to Subsidiary Table I suggests that as the unduly low proportion of females in Burma is caused entirely by a large immigration from India in which males predominate to an excessive degree, and as the natural population born in the province shews an excess of females, the controversy has no reference to the proportions of the sexes in Burma. There are, however, areas in which there is an excess of males among the natural population, and Mr. Lowis discussed the subject at some length in paragraph 74 of the Census Report of 1901, in connection with the deficit of females in the Bhamo, Myitkyina and Ruby Mines Districts. arrived at the conclusions that it was not inconceivable that the deficit may have been due to the wilful omission of females from the returns, and that he could only account for the deficiency of females in the three districts aforesaid by the operation among the Kachins and other backward communities in the north and east of the province, of the two factors mentioned by the Census Commissioner, tending to the omission of females from the records. But an examination of the natural populations for 1901, of the three districts mentioned by Mr. Lowis, discloses the facts that there was an actual excess of females recorded as born in two (Bhamo and Ruby Mines) of the three districts under consideration, and that the excess of males was due to a large masculine immigration. Even in the third district, Myitkyina, the actual deficit of females (854 per thousand males) in the actual population was reduced to small dimensions (980 per thousand males) by discounting the effect of migration; and it is probable that if the effect of migration from the unadministered and un-enumerated portion of the district could have been removed, an Moreover, Subsidiary Table IV of actual excess of females would have resulted. this chapter demonstrates that for the census of 1911, there is an excess of females among most of the backward races, which would make it highly improbable that

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any tendency to look upon girls and women as being of too little importance for entry in the census records, should have been in operation. Among backward tribes, the low quality of the enumeration is more responsible for errors in sex proportions than any tendency to wilfully omit the record of females. instance, the case of Karenni where Mr. Lowis contrasts the observed superabundance of females with the excess of males in the census figures. In the first place, the superabundance of females was reported, not for the whole population, but for the Red Karens, the Padaungs and some villages in the Brè country; and even for the Red Karens and the Padaungs, the excess of females was noticed only in the Brè-Padaung tracts to which the Assistant Superintendent's personal attention was given. The remark concerning the excess of females does not appear to apply to the States of Kantarawadi, Naungpale and Nammekon. There is no discrepancy in the fact that there is a superabundance of females among certain races in a restricted locality, and at the same time an excess of males in a wider area comprising other races, where the superabundance of females does not Moreover, Karenni was in 1891 an estimated area, the records necessarily occur. for which could not pretend to great accuracy. It is interesting to notice that the extension of regular census enumeration to the special area where the superabundance of females was observed in 1901, has resulted, in the census of 1911, in a record consistent with the observed facts. In the enumerated portions of the Kyebogyi State there are 3.952 females to 3,116 males a proportion of 1,268 females to 1,000 males.

It is therefore highly improbable that any tendency exists, or has existed, among the backward races of Burma, to omit or evade the return of females in the census records. In the remote areas of the Myitkyina District and the Karenni Subdivision an actual enumeration of the population was not attempted in 1901. It is impossible to utilise the admittedly imperfect results of an estimate to demonstrate a tendency to omit females in the process of enumeration. Any figures in the enumeration for 1901 or 1911, which superficially suggest any such tendency are capable on a detailed examination of rational and probable explanation in other directions.

116. Effect of infantile mortality on sex proportions.—A detailed discussion of sex proportions in Burma must necessarily commence with the relative

proportions of the sexes at birth. These are given in detail in Subsidiary Table V of this chapter. All subsequent modifications, whether by mortality or by migration, must operate on the initial numbers, either enhancing the disparity or reducing its dimensions and changing its direction. The proportions for the

Records of birth.				
Period. Males.			Females.	Females per
1891—1901 1901—1911		715,859 1,209,091	666,475 1,133,566	931 938

two decades, 1891-1901 and 1901-1911, are calculated over different areas, the former over Lower Burma, and the latter over Lower Burma and that portion of Upper Burma included within the natural division termed the Central Basin. The proportion of females born in the former decade (931 per thousand males) coincides closely with the proportion for the whole of India. For the period 1901—1911, influenced partly by the inclusion of a large part of Upper Burma, the proportion of females at birth has risen to 938 per thousand males. At the commencement of life there is therefore an excess of 60 or 70 males in every thousand males born, compared with the corresponding number of females born. But upon these excess numbers a heavier male mortality immediately commences to effect a reduction. A reference to Subsidiary Table IX of Chapter V or to Subsidiary Table VI of this chapter will shew that there is an extremely heavy rate of mortality during the first year of infancy, and that this heavy mortality operates with much greater intensity against the male sex. For every thousand deaths of male infants below the age of one year which are reported, only 772 deaths of female infants below the age of one year are returned. Thus the preponderance of males at birth is assailed before the first year of life has been completed by a mortality nearly one-third greater than occurs among females. The effect may be illustrated by imagining the operation of the male and female infant death rates for any particular year upon 1,000 male and 938 female infants, these numbers being proportionate to the numbers of male and female births Take, for instance, the death rates in Lower Burma for children under

one year of age in 1909. These are 370 and 276 per thousand for males and

Effect of infantile death-rate	on sex propo	ortions.
	Males.	Females.
Initial numbers Death-rate Mortality	r,000 370 370	938 276 259
Survivors at end of first year.	630	679

females respectively. At the end of the first year of life there would be 679 temales to 630 males, the initial deficit of 62 females being converted by the mortality of one year into an excess of 49 females. This affords an explanation of the apparent contradiction that while a greater proportion of males are born than females, the population returned at successive census enumerations for infants under one year of age shews a larger proportion of females than The excess mortality amongst males rises to such a degree in the first year of life, that the initial excess of males

is counteracted and turned into a deficit within the limit of the lowest age period for which a record is possible.

117. Effect of mortality on sex proportions up till the age of 15.— If it were possible to accept the recorded statistics of births and deaths as reliable, then the excess of females established at the end of the first year of life should progressively increase till the attainment of 60 years of age. The proportions in column 14 of Subsidiary Table VI calculated over a period of five years shew a smaller mortality for females than for males, for each of the age periods given in the table with the exception of that for sixty years and over. Each successive period up to sixty should accordingly see a progressive increase in the ratio of females to males, the former diminishing by death at a less rapid rate than the latter. But a reference to Subsidiary Table II shews no such progressively increasing ratio. Indeed, choosing the indigenous Buddhist population in order to obviate the disturbance of immigration, for the three periods o-5, 5-10 and 10—15, there is, on the contrary, a progressively diminishing ratio of 1,044, 1,021 and 950 females per thousand males. There is therefore the extraordinarily contradictory result, that a population with an excess of females at the ages 0-5, operated upon by a mortality for the periods 5-10 and 10-15 in which the deaths of females are less than the deaths of males, results in a sex proportion for the ages 10—15 in which the males outnumber the females. One explanation of this contradiction is that the records of vital statistics are not to be trusted, and that the excess of masculine mortality is neither so great nor so universal as the records would imply. This may partly account for the anomaly, but the principal cause is the unreliability of the census records of ages, which vitiates the possibility of comparing with any advantage the crude statistics of sex by age groups. A reference to the diagram illustrating paragraph 104 of the previous chapter, will demonstrate that even after two operations of correction, to eliminate the more obvious errors of the age records, the age curves of the two sexes depart from the probable true curves in different degrees at different ages. The amount of error is measured by the area between the fine and the broad curves. For the ages 10-15 the error is indicated by two triangular shaped areas, ABC for-males and XYZ for females. It is thus graphically demonstrable that even after superficial correction, the numbers of males between the ages 10 and 15 are over-estimated to a considerably greater extent than the number of females of the same ages, and that consequently the sex proportions for that age period are disturbed.

The apparent deficiency of females from the ages of 10 to 15 is not peculiar to Burma. It is to be found to a greater degree in all the Indian provinces. In

Buddhists aged 10-15, pe	r 10,000 of th	e population,
	Males.	Females.
As recorded As corrected by Mr. Hardy.	1,1‡3 1,133	1,046 1,158

the Census Report for India for 1901, it is considered that the deficiency, though partly due to a genuine decline in the proportion of females to males when puberty is reached, is principally caused by the inaccuracy of the age return in the case of females. This inaccuracy general at all ages, is particularly disturbing as the age for marriage approaches. The ages of married girls are overstated and the ages of

unmarried girls are understated. Testing this theory by the calculations of Mr. Hardy for the Buddhist population of Burma for 1901, it is seen that the

recorded number of males between the ages of 10 and 15 for that year was slightly over the probable true number, and the recorded number of females was decidedly below the probable true number. Thus the sex proportion of the age period is distorted in two directions, by an excess of males above, and a deficit of females below, the real numbers. The diminishing ratios of 1,044, 1,021 and 950 females per 1,000 males for the three first quinquennial age periods are due rather to incorrect age returns than to any such changes in the actual proportions of the sexes.

118. Sex proportions at different ages according to Mr. Hardy's calculations.—The reference to the age curves of the previous chapter to

demonstrate the unreliability of the sexproportions by age groups as deduced from the uncorrected census records, suggests that a more correct estimate of the sex-proportions of the Buddhist community of the province by age groups might be obtained by utilising Mr. Hardy's age tables. As given in Subsidiary Table IC of that chapter, they record the age distribution of 100,000 persons of each Allowing for the fact that in 1901, the females of the Buddhist community outnumbered the males in the proportion of 1,027 to 1,000, the final column of the marginal statement gives the sex-proportions deduced from the probable true ages for 1901. It suggests the following con-

Females per 1,000 males (Buddhist community).				
Age period.	Uncorrected	Corrected returns.		
	1911.	1901.	1901.	
0— 5 5—10 10—15 15—20 20—25 25—30 30—40 40—50 50—60 60 and over	1,044 1,021 950 1,108 1,149 1,073 923 981 1,051 1,116	1.034 1,008 939 1,126 1,143 1,054 1,115 966 1,041 1,167	1,035 1,051 1,050 1,037 1,016 991 968 983 994 1,156	

clusions as to the variations in the proportions of the sexes through succeeding Commencing with an initial excess of males (not revealed in the age periods. statement), the excess mortality among males causes an excess of females in the first quinquennial period up to five years of age. The excess of females reaches its maximum between the ages of 5 and 10, after which a decline commences, being almost imperceptible for the period 10 to 15. The excess of females continues but with diminishing proportions through the ages 15 to 25, and then the proportion changes and the males assume the supremacy in point of numbers. The decline in the proportion of females still continues, till between the ages of 30 and 40 there are only 968 females to every 1,000 males. From this period, the proportion of females again rises until their supremacy in numbers over the males again occurs from the age of 60 onwards. So far as the sex-proportions based on Mr. Hardy's tables can be accepted as being accurate they indicate that though in the initial and final stages of life the mortality amongst males is higher than amongst females, in the mediant ages there is a greater rate of mortality among women. The close correspondence of the period of decline in the ratio of females to males with the child-bearing age of the former, commencing with the age of puberty and continuing throughout the period of child-bearing, can scarcely be the result of coincidence. It suggests that the risks to female life of the function of bearing children are greater than the occupational risks to male life for the corresponding years.

These conclusions may be compared with those obtained for India generally as recorded in paragraph 222 of the India Census Report for 1901 as follows:

"The general conclusions to be drawn from the age statistics seem therefore to be as There is everywhere an excess of males at birth. For a few years after birth the two sexes have about the same expectation of life, but about the time of puberty there is a relatively higher mortality amongst females. Those who servive this trying period seem for some years to have a stronger hold on life than males of the same age; while from about 30 onwards the two sexes have again much the same general rate of mortality. After the age of to the balance seems to turn in favour of females, but this is possibly due merely to a greater tendency to evaggerate age on the part of old women." greater tendency to exaggerate age on the part of old women."

The principal points in which sex-variation in Burma appears to differ from

the more generalised experience in India are as follows:-

(i) In India the two sexes have about the same expectation of life for a few years after birth; in Burma the expectation of life is much less for males than for females for the first year of life, though henceforward the expectations approach equality.

(ii) In India the mortality among females at the time of puberty is relatively much greater, and diminishes the ratio of females to males much more, than in Burma.

(iii) In India, the excess of male mortality is only sufficient to transform the initial deficit of females from 93 per cent. of number of males at the time of birth, to 96 per cent. for the general population; in Burma, the excess of male mortality is sufficient to transform a similar initial deficit of females into an excess of 103 per cent. of the number of males for the natural population.

(iv) In India, the high mortality of females at puberty is followed by a period when semales have a hold of life, equivalent to, or stronger than, that possessed by males. In Burma, the greater mortality amongst females commencing at puberty continues throughout the

child-bearing age.

119. Effect of mortality on sex-proportions from 15 to 40.—It must be remembered that the four contrasts between the proportion of the sexes in India and in Burma are drawn, not from the actual census records, nor from the figures for 1911, but from the corrected figures for 1901. If the actual figures for 1911 be taken three of the four divergencies in sex-proportions between Burma and India still remain. The greater expectation of life at birth among females, the smaller mortality among females at the age of puberty and the conversion of an initial deficit of females into a general surplus for the natural population, are apparent, whether the crude or the corrected records are taken, and whether the figures for the census of 1901 or that of 1911 are taken.

Buddhist fe	males per 1000	o males duri	ing
chi	ld-bearing ag	e 15—40.	
Age period.	As rec	orded.	As corrected.
	1911.	1901.	1901,
10—15	950	939	1,050
15—20	1,108	1,126	1,037
20—25	1,149	1,143	1,016
25—30	1,073	1,054	991
30—40	923	1,115	968

three may be taken as fully established. The remaining conclusion, the relatively greater mortality among females in Burma commencing from the age of puberty and continuing throughout the child-bearing age, is more tentative. It is contradicted by the actual age returns. From the ages of 10 to 25, the sex proportions as recorded, and as corrected, offer many points of contradiction. The records for 1901 and 1911 both indicate a relatively light female mortality leading to an

increased ratio of females to males from the ages of 15 to 25. From the latter age the progressive diminution in the female excess is observable in the recorded figures for 1911, and to this extent the records for 1911 demonstrate the accuracy of the corrections for 1901. The contradictions are therefore reduced to the opposing tendency of the sex proportions between the ages of 15 and 25 in the actual records of 1911 and the corrected records of 1901. The actual mortality returns, as given in Subsidiary Table VI of this chapter shew a higher relative mortality for semales during the age periods 15 to 20 and 20 to 30 than during the period 5 to 10. This higher relative mortality among semales, despite the fact that the immigrant male mortality affects the returns heavily during the second

Expectation of life (Buddhist community).				
Ag	ge.	Males.	Females.	
15 20 22 25 30 35 40 45		36·49 33·28 32·09 30·38 27·68 25·11 22·58 20·04	35.61 32.98 32.10 30.88 28.96 26.96 24.62 21.89	

period, suggests that there is an excess female mortality during the period from 20 to 30. Though the reliability of the mortality statistics is questionable, they can be accepted as demonstrating the improbability of such a marked increase in the excess of females between the ages of 10 and 25 as the records for 1911 would indicate. The balance of probability tends rather towards the accuracy of the corrected returns for 1901, and the fourth point of contrast between the sex-proportions in Burma and in India, though less firmly established than the first three, has a fair degree of probability. The excessive mortality of females in India during the age of puberty is followed by a reaction in which female life and male life have more or

less equal expectations. In Burma, the more moderate female mortality at puberty is followed by a period lasting throughout the age of child-bearing, during which the relatively higher mortality among semales converts their excess numbers at the

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commencement of the period into a deficit at its close. This tendency can be seen by comparing the expectation of life of males and females during the period from 15 to 45. At the age of 15, the expectation of life for females with the child-bearing period looming ahead is less than for males. As the period gradually passes the discrepancy diminishes, expectation of life approximating equality at the age of 22. Thenceforward the expectation of life for females is greater than that for males being 185 years in excess at the age of 45.

120. Progressive variation in sex-proportions.—Still continuing the discussion for the indigenous or natural population of the province, it is seen that

there is a progressive advance in the excess of females in the past three census enumerations. The proportions for the Buddhist population correspond closely with those for the natural population. An analysis of the variations of the proportions for different age periods is to be found in Subsidiary Table

Female	ës për 1,000 n	nales.	
	1911.	1901.	1891.
Natural population Buddhist population	1,028 1,031	1,027 1,027	T,018 1,020

II, but the figures for the age records are so doubtful that they cannot be made the basis of any profitable discussion. The successive rise in the proportion of

females with each enumeration has been cited as a reason for assuming that there is a tendency to omit the record of females. It has been suggested that the increase in the proportions of females is due to the gradual elimination of this tendency as each successive enumeration has been effected. But in Burma the increase is principally due to successive increases in the sex proportions of females to males in the population of the

Females per 1,00	o males (Nat	ural populatio	•
Natural Division.	1911.	1901.	.897.
Province	r,028	1,027	810,1
Central Basin	1,077	1,070	1,064
Deltaic Plains	1,010	993	984
Northern Hill Dis-	1,010	1,035	972
Coast Ranges	974	984	965
Specially Adminis- tered Territories.	} 1,017	1,ò14	***

Central Basin and the Deltaic Plains. These two areas comprise that portion of the province which has attained a high stage of civilisation, and it is highly improbable that there has existed any tendency to the omission of female entries in the census records. In the remaining portions of the province, improvements in the nature and methods of census enumeration, and successive increases in the census area, have affected the sex-proportions. But their populations are relatively small and the main contributions to the excess of the female population have been made in the more settled portions of the province.

121. Localities showing female deficit in natural population.—Before leaving the discussion of the sex proportion of the natural population of Burma it is necessary to consider its variation over the different portions of the province; and especially to investigate the circumstances under which the normal excess of females is absent and is replaced by a deficit in certain districts. Outside the Coast Ranges there are six districts only, Rangoon, Thatôn, Toungoo, Myitkyina, the Upper Chindwin and the Ruby Mines, where there is a deficit of females in the natural population. The circumstances of Rangoon are exceptional, there being a much larger Indian than Burmese population within its boundaries: Thatôn and Toungoo are districts whose boundaries have been much changed by administrative readjustments, and whose birth-place statistics, from which the natural population is calculated, cannot be accepted with certainty. Myitkyina and the Upper Chindwin have large unadministered territories within their borders and their population contains many persons from the unadministered areas, recorded as born within the district, but who were born outside the census area. The number of males in the natural population of these districts has been unduly enhanced by these immigrants.

The districts of the Coast Ranges are the only areas in which there appears to be a well established tendency for the males of the indigenous population to outnumber the females. To the extent that the population of the districts have a much larger admixture of Indian blood, and are imbued with Indian modes of life to a greater extent than Burma, it is natural that the sex proportions should

coincide with those of India rather than with those of Burma. But this does not explain the low proportions of females in Northern Arakan and Salween districts.

Females per 1,000 males.				
	Buddhist p	opulation.		
Age.	Burma.	Coast Ranges.		
0—5 5—10 10—15 15—20	i,044 1,021 950 1,108	1,009 987 918 1,073		

Mr. Lowis confessed that he was unable adequately to account for the excess of males in these districts, where conditions are such as to lead one to anticipate a numerically superior female population. It is probable that being obscure districts inhabited by backward races, they have not been given their full quota of emigrants in the birth-place statistics. It is a point of honour with many of the members of hill tribes who have migrated to the plains, to assume an attitude of contempt towards their place of birth, and indignantly to repudiate a suggestion as to their true place of origin. The population of

the districts in question is so small that the sex proportions could be changed by

causes affecting but small absolute numbers.

Considering the sex proportions of the districts of the Coast Ranges as a whole by age periods, it is seen that it is in the earlier ages that the discrepancy between proportions for the Coast Ranges and for Burma is established. The number of females for the first few years is not sufficiently in excess to withstand the greater mortality on attaining puberty, and yet to maintain a state of general excess for the total population.

122. Sex proportions by race.—Subsidiary Table III gives the sex proportions by agé periods for nine of the indigenous races of the province and

	 ·
Race.	Number of females per 1,000 males.
Talaing Karen Arakanese Shan Chin Kachin Wa-Palaung Danu Taungthu Chinese	 1,014 1,007 943 1,010 1,027 1,010 984 1,012 998 375
	 ·

for Chinese. The deficit of females amongst the latter race is partly due to the fact that its members are largely immigrants, and partly to the fact that the male issue of mixed marriages between the Chinese and the Burmese assume Chinese nationality while the female children are brought up as Burmese. Of the indigenous tribes and races, three only, the Arakanese, the Wa-Palaungs and the Taungthus, show a deficit of females. The deficit among the Arakanese is to be accounted for by two causes; the first is the generally observed deficit of females in the districts of the Coast Ranges, and this is supplemented by a tendency of the Burmese race to absorb the members of the Arakanese

race, a tendency which operates to a greater extent with the females than with the males. In the Arakan Division, side by side with a deficit of females amongst the Arakanese, there exists a corresponding surplus of females among the Burmese. The Taungthus show a slight deficit amounting to two females only per thousand males. The sex proportions for the Taungthus 998 females per thousand males are not very different from those of the Karens (of which race they form a branch) with 1,007 females per thousand males, though in the one case there is a deficit and in the other an excess of females. The Wa-Palaungs commence with a deficit of females in the earliest age period for children under five years of age, and it has been demonstrated that unless the females can obtain an excess in the earlier years of life through the operation of a relatively small mortality, an excess cannot be obtained in later years. For the remaining races the excess of females ranges from 1,010 for the Shans and Kachins to 1,027 for the Chins, the latter being the only race whose ratio of females to males approaches that for the

	Females per 1,000 males.			
Race,	o <del></del> 5	5-12	12—15	
Chin Kachin	1,103 1,155	1,005 873	780 750	

natural population of the province, 1,028 females per thousand males. The sex proportions by age periods given in Subsidiary Table IV are even more unreliable for the separate races than for the province as a whole. Those for the Taungthus are obviously vitiated by incorrect age returns. Among the Chins and the Kachins, the

influence of almost unrestricted sexual intercourse among children attaining puberty is responsible for a large mortality among females, which causes a most marked deficit between the ages of 12 and 15. As a general rule, among the non-Burmese races and tribes of the province, the lower status of women and the harder labour they are compelled to perform in addition to their natural functions of child

bearing, lead to a greater relative female mortality than exists with the Burmese, and tends to keep the ratio of females to males at a lower level.

123. Sex proportions in India and Burma.—The outstanding feature of the sex proportion of the province of Burma as a whole is the excess of females

amongst its natural population, there being 5,812,375 females born in the province to 5,652,871 males. The sex proportion of 959 females per thousand males for the actual population is an incidental fact, due to the superficial phenomenon of migration. The real sex proportion is that of the natural population, which is 1,028 females per 1,000 males. It has been seen that the proportion of the sexes at birth in Burma

Females per 1,000 males.				
	1911.	1901.		
India (actual population).	953	963		
Burma (natural population).	1,028	1,027		

coincides very nearly with the sex proportions at birth in India. Yet, starting from the same initial proportions of between 930 and 940 females per thousand males at birth, their final proportions diverge widely. The divergence is not due to the fact that the proportions for India are given for the actual population while those for Burma are given for the natural population. In paragraph 195 of the India Census Report for 1901, it is stated that in India as a whole, migration does not greatly disturb the sex proportions, but that it is a factor of considerable importance when the figures for individual provinces or states are considered. comparison of the proportion of the sexes of the natural population of Burma with that of the actual population of India is therefore quite legitimate. It is necessary to consider the influences which have operated to keep the ratio of females to males at so low a figure as 953 per thousand in India, while in Burma there is an excess of females in the natural population to the extent of 1,028 females per 1,000 males. In the extract from Mr. Gait's note quoted in paragraph 115 of this report, nine reasons are given why there is a relatively high female mortality in India. A perusal of the conditions therein related is sufficient to account for the divergence in the ultimate sex proportions in Burma and India. Of the nine specific causes of a high mortality among females, seven (numbers 1, 2, 3, 6, 7, 8 and 9) do not operate to any appreciable extent in Burma. Certainly, not one of them could be considered as having an appreciable effect in enhancing the rate of female mortality for the province as a whole, though some of them might affect the sex proportions of the backward races to a slight extent. The remaining two causes of a high female mortality, a very high birth rate, and unskilful midwifery, undoubtedly do operate in Burma, and their influence has been seen in the higher mortality of women during the child-bearing period, and the transformation of an excess of females at its commencement into a deficit of females at its

The excess of females in Burma is established early in life. The number of persons living at each age period grows less and less with advancing years, and

consequently an excess sex proportion in earlier years means much more in actual numbers than an identical excess at a proportion It is to period. absence in Burma of the second and third of the conditions given Mr. Gait as the causes of a high female mortality in India, that the high proportion of females is to be principally attributed. Neglect of female infant

			Mortality p	er cent.		
Age.		India.			Burma	
_	Males.	Females.	Excess Male Mortality.	Males.	Females.	Excess Male Mortality.
0 1 2 3 4 5	28.54 8.88 6.38 4.68 3.49 2.67	25.88 8.73 6.05 4.42 3.58 2.91	+2.66 + .15 + .33 + .26 09 21	23.83 6.93 4.89 3.49 2.56 1.93	19.06 6.12 4.17 3.06 2.38 1.89	+ 4'77 + '81 + '72 + '43 + '18 + '04

life, and infant marriage and child-bearing cause an undue depletion in the number of females in the early years of life, when a slight change in the proportions means a marked change in the absolute numbers of the sexes. A reference to the percentage of mortality for each sex for the early years of life as calculated from Mr. Hardy's life tables, demonstrates that the rate of female mortality in

India approaches much more closely to the rate of male mortality than in Burma during the first four years of life, and actually exceeds the rate of masculine mortality after the completion of the fourth year.

The excess of females thus established is less depleted by the mortality due to early marriages and premature child-bearing in Burma than in India. The

	·		
Province.	Number of females per 1,000 males.	Percentage of matried females aged 10—15	
Bengal	•••	813	57
Madras	•••	902	43
United Provinces		Sor	54
Punjab	•••	750	27
Bombay		Sto	40
Central Provinces	***	SS3	37
Αρεαμή	• • •	811	<b>-</b> 9
Burma (Buddhists)		939	I I

marginal statement indicates the extent to which early marriage is associated with a low proportion of females between the ages of 10 to 15 in the various provinces. Burma with the smallest proportion of child marriages has the highest proportion of females at the period when such marriages are contracted. The association of these two factors is summarised in the Census Report for India for 1901 in the statement that the proportion of females at the age 10—15 varies inversely with the number who are married at this period of life.

124. Sex proportions of immigrants and actual population.—The excess of females among the population born in the province is counteracted by

Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of the Commence of th	Males,	Females.	Excess Males	Females per 1,000 Males.
Born in Burma	5,652,871	5,812,375	-159.501	1,028
Immigrants	530,633	119,348	+411,275	225
Actual population	6,183,494	5,931,723	+251,771	959

the excess of males among the immigrant population. Of the 649,971 immigrants in Burma 77.5 per cent. are males, the excess male immigrants numbering 411,275 being more than sufficient to overcome the

excess of 159,504 females in the natural population. The resultant excess of males to the number of 251,771 produces a sex proportion of 959 females per thousand

Females per 1,000 males.						
ī — 1911, 1901. 1891.						
India Byrma	953 959	963 962	958 96a			

males. Though there has been a reduction in the ratio of females to males since 1901, the reduction has not been so great as that for India as a whole. For India the proportion of females has diminished from 963 to 953 per thousand males, whereas in Burma the diminution has been from 962 to 959. From being one point below the proportion for India the proportion of females in Burma is now six points above that for India.

125. Sex proportions in the City of Rangoon.—The City of Rangoon exhibits in an intensified degree the operation of migration in modifying the sex-pro-

Popul	ation of the C	City of Rango	on.	
,	Males.	Females.	Excess Males.	Females per 1,000 Males.
Born in, Rangoon Born in Burma outside? Rangoon Born in India	44,332 18,582 130,716	47,114 12,379 22,762	-2,782 +6,203 +107,954	1,063 666 174
Born beyond India Total	208,111	2,950 85,205	122,906	409

portions of the natural population. There is an excess of females in the proportion of 1,063 per thousand males among the population both born and resident in the City. Immigration from the rest of Burma introduces an excess of 6,203 males, the proportion of females among such

immigrants being 666 per thousand. But it is the immigrants from India who are responsible for the bulk of the excess of the male population of Rangoon. They provide a surplus of 107,954 males, females numbering only 174 for every thousand Indian male immigrants. The sex disparity among persons immigrant from countries beyond India is scarcely less disproportionate (204 females per 1,000 males) but it concerns much smaller numbers, the excess of males being 11,531,001y. The combined resultant of an excess male immigration from the

three sources, the rest of Burma, India, and countries beyond India, is to cause an excess of males to the extent of 122,906, the proportion of females: being 409 per thousand males.

126. Sex proportions of the urban population.—The urban population of the province exhibits in a modified degree the same characteristics which are

to be observed in the distribution of the sexes in Rangoon. The fact that the indigenous races of the province have in the past tended to specialise in agricultural occupations, and to leave the pursuit of urban industries to a great extent to Indian immigrants, has tended to produce a considerable excess of males in the urban population of Burma. The large excess of males amongst the immigrants from India is principally concentrated in the towns

Sex proportions (	urban populat	ion):	
6. 10	Excess of	Female m	s per 1,000 ales.
Class of Town.	males.	All religions.	Buddhists.
City of Rangoon Gity of Mandalay Moulmein Six Towns (population 20,000 —50,000).	+122,906 + 1,137 + 12,678 + 36,739	409 984: 639 648	869 1;113 1,027 996
Sixteen Towns (population to,000—20,000).	+ 35,071	718	96 <b>7</b>
Thirty-two Towns (population 5,000-10,000).	+ 22,184	824	1,041
Six Towns (under 5,000)	+ 2,830	782	977
Total	+233,545	657	1,000

of the province, the general rule being that the larger the town, the larger is the proportion of immigrants and the greater is the sex disparity of the population. Mandalay is obviously an exception to this rule, but if Mandalay be excluded, the proportions of females to males follow the reverse direction of the size of the population. The proportion of females to males among the urban Buddhist population, ranging from 967 in the 16 towns with a population between 10,000 and 20,000 to 1,113 in the City of Mandalay, indicates the extent to which the excess male urban population is composed of alien immigrants.

127. Sex proportions by natural divisions.—In discussing the sex proportions of the actual population of areas smaller than the whole province, internal as

well as external migration must be consi-Immigration from beyond the province acts in one direction only, that of introducing an excess male population to the area affected. But migration within the province operates in a double sense. It depletes the source of migration of an undue proportion of males, and it adds this excess of males into the area of destination of migration. Thus the high proportion of females in the districts of the Central Basin is due to

the fact that there is a male excess in the indigenous emigration which partly compensates for the male excess in the alien immigration, and keeps the sex

proportions of the actual population close to the sex proportion of the natural popu-A significant fact with reference to this natural division is that at the census of 1911 the proportion of the female excess for the actual population has fallen below the excess for the natural population In 1891 and 1901 the proportions of females were higher for the actual popu-

Females per 1,000 males, 1911.				
Natural Division.	Actual Population.	Natural Population		
Province Central Basin Deltaic Plains Northern Hill Districts Coast Ranges Specially Administered Territories.	959 1,072 874 937 892 1,004	1,028 1,077 1,010 1,010 974 1,016		

Females per 1,000 males (Central Basin).					
		1911.	1901.	1891.	
Natural Population Actual Population	•••	1,077	1,070 1,092	1,064 1,087	

lation, indicating a large emigration of males which more than compensated for the small immigration of males from India. In 1911, the depression of the female proportion for the actual population below that for the natural population indicates that the male emigration is now of such small dimensions that it carnot outweigh the effect of Indian immigration. The cessation of migration from India and from the Central Basin into the Deltaic Plains has not yet had much effect in raising the proportion of females to males for the latter area, which is now just one

point higher than in 1901. In two districts only of the Deltaic Plains (Tharrawaddy and Henzada) where the effect of migration is scarcely felt, do the females

Females per 1,000 males (actual population).					
Natural Division.	1911.	1901.	1891.		
Province Central Basin Deltaic Plains Northern Hill Districts Coast Ranges Specially Administered } Territories.	959 t,072 874 937 892 t,004	962 1,092 873 951 895 1,018	962 1,087 869 873 885		

outnumber the male population. Myaungmya, Pegu, Thatôn and Toungoo show a smaller proportion of females than in 1901. In the first district, a change of boundaries has affected the proportion, and in the last three districts migration is still a potent force. The figures for the Northern Hill Districts and the Specially Administered Territories are affected by changes of the census area and improvements in methods of enumeration in the more remote tracts. The low proportion of females in

tracts. The low proportion of females in the districts of the Coast Ranges is due to an initially low proportion amongst the natural population, accentuated by immigration from India.

# SUBSIDIARY TABLE 1.—General Proportions of the sexes by Natural Division and Districts.

			Numl	ber of Female	i to 1,000 Mal	cs.	
Districts and Natural Dis	islans,	191	1.	19	oi.	15	391 <b>.</b>
		Actual population.	Natural Population.	Actual population.	Natural population.	Actual population.	Natural population
Commission of the second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second secon	etini, de de de de de de de de de de de de de	2	3	4	5	б	7
Froxince		959	1,028	962	1,027	962	1,01
I.— Central Basin	•	1,072	1,077	1,092	1,070	1,087	1,06
Preme		1,034	1,46	1,049	1,043	1,031	1,03
Thayetmyo	•••	1,031	1,019	1,015	1,023	91.4	1,01
		1,050	1,661	1,124	1,092	1,118	1,00
	••• •••	1,048	1,052	1,085	1,045	1,106	1,06
	•••	1,0:6	1,047	1,070	1,012	1,042	1,03
	•••	930	1,025	598 1,140	1,013	1,037	3,01
C	••• •••	1,120 1,111	1.056	1,138	1,104	1,155	1,110
Nagaung Lower Chindwin		1,738	1,204	1,266	1,108	1,291	1,11
14. 1		1,053	1,051	1,037	1,049	1,017	1,02
8.4°=15.611		1,084	1,030	1,119	1,087	1,131	1,08
		1,000	1,035	1,020	1,041	1,001	1,03
Mylogyan		1,092	1,070	1,143	1,080	1,134	1,080
II.—Ocitaic Plains		874	1,010	873	993	869	984
Rangoon	•••	499	963	418	982 985	445 848	939
Hanthawaddy Tharrawaddy	•••	822	1,005	815 907	1,010	ηS2	961 1,01.
Maria.	***	569	1,000	953	982	799	965
Bassein	***	244	1,003	919	999	939	993
Henzada		1,01.	1,032	1,005	1,016	990	1,010
Myaungmya	***	897	1,002	907	988	)	
Ma-ubin	•• •••	c52	1,020	<b>853</b>	993	866	972
Pyapôn Thatôn		834	1,017 \$80	906	978	S <sub>92</sub>	04.
Toungeo	•••	914 934	956	943	979	911	953 981
III.—Northern Hill Distr	icta	937	1,010	951	1,035	873	97 <u>2</u>
Illiana.		041	1070	0.14	1,036	700	987
Bhamo Myltkyina	***	941 787	1,050 979	914 854	980	790	,
Katha	*** ***	1,019	1,035	1,037	1,055	743	1,011
Ruby Mines	•••	8.0	992	822	1,018	534	800
Upper Chindwin	•••	987	584	1,003	1,034	997	991
IV.—Coast Ranges		892	974	896	984	885	965
Akyab		830	944	797	950	So6	140
Northern Arakan	***	919	987	959	999	924	976
Kyaukpyu		1,064	1,070	1,082	1,062	1,049	1,027
Sandoway	•••	997	1,009	955	994	978	990
Salween Amherst	•••	883 854	915	943 831	998 968	902   855	958 949
Tayoy	•••	970	984	1,015	1,008	1,039	1,019
Mergui	•••	871	954	917	984	900	972
V.—Specially Administration	ered Terri-	1,005	1,017	1,018	1,014		•••
Northern Shan State Southern Shan State		990	1,016	1,006	1,012		•••
Pakokku Hill Tracts	3	1,006 1,024	1,011	1,032	·	***	•••
Chin Hills	444	1,024	1,032	1,019	1,013		•••
		-,	. ",",,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,				

Subsidiary Table II.—Number of females per 1,000 males at different ageperiods by Religions, at each of the last three Censuses.

Age.		Ali Religions.		Buddhists.		Animists.		. Christians.						
			1891.	1901.	1911.	1891.	1501.	1911.	1891.	1501.	1911.	1891.	1901,	1911.
0'I	.,.		1,063	1,065	1,059	1,068	1,067	1,067	975	1,089	976	1,000	1,057	1,056
1-2	***	***	1,034	1,033	1,041	1,011	1,034	1,041	1,023	1,000	1,053	1,001	1,076	1,014
. 2-3	****		1,022	1,036	1,041	1,015	1,038	1,045	1,000	1,000	1,030	978	1,036	1,040
3-4	***		1,007	1,013	1,016	1,010	1,018	1,027	810	088	1,043	1,013	100	1,017
45	***	•••	1,016	1,014	1,041	1,018	1,018	1,046	692	1,017	1,039	1,015	1,045	1,001
Total o-5			1,018	1,030	2,040	1,031	1,034	. 21044	971	1,014	1,031	1,012	1,032	1,030
5-10	***		997	1,001	1,007	1,001	1,003	1,021	945	951	848	943	28c	991
10-15	***	***	926	921	928	039	939	950	848	882	863	864	828	507
15-20	***	***	1,077	1,058	1,037	1,130	1,126	1,108	1,000	945	990	1,055	1,011	1,014
2025	•••	•••	963	1,006	988	1,097	1,143	1,149	1,013	936	1,002	752	838	866
2530	•••	•••	8So	907	503	1,015	1,054	1,073	875	899	80)	674	772	850
Total o-30		•••	980	988	· 987	1,029	1,041	1,046	941	942	931	878	934	945
30-40	***	•••	819	828	833	924	1,115	923	663	778	803	645	714	731
40-50-	***		889	883	889	255	966	gSi	715	774	776	749	746	794
50-60	***	***	1,024	988	993	1,005	1,041	1,051	781	872	922	818	879	877
60 and over	***	***	1,161	1,131	1,076	1,194	1,167	1,116	830	1,037	987	867	87 o	923
Total 30 an	d over		927	926	915	957	1,003	1,003	858	899	837	830	878	792
Total all age Actual popu		 	96a	962	959	1,010	1,017	1,031	858	899	894	819	878	892
Total all ag Natural por	ges pulation		1,018	1,027	1,028									•••

SUBSIDIARY TABLE III.—Number of females per 1,000 males at different ageperiods by Religions, and Natural Divisions (Census 1911).

	Central Basin.		Deltaic Plains.		Northern Hill Districts.		Coast Ranges.		Specially Administered Territories.	
Age.	All Religions.	Buddhist.	All Religions.	Buddhist.	All Religions.	Buddhist.	All Religions,	Buddhist.	All Religions.	Buddhist.
1.	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
0-5 5-10 10-15 15-20 20-40 Total 0-40	1,055 1,036 984 1,119 1,050	1,056 1,037 988 1,139 1,115	1,038 1,007 892 976 769 886	1,047 1,020 923 1,104 984 1,004	1,047 1,018 985 1,020 843	1,058 1,039 1,001 1,070 916 989	996 984 876 989 822 902	1,009 987 918 1,073 976 986	1,046 952 788 1,074 1,056	1,018 1,004 923 1,069 1,071
40—60 60 and over		1,132 1,320	8 <sub>20</sub> 831	946 877	859 1,186	905 1,140	893 1,006	942 1,023	916 1,103	904 1,118
Total 40 and over	1,116	1,188	823	927	926	956	920	962	966	963
Total all ages (actual population). Total all ages (natural population).	1,072	1,100	874 1,010	989	937 1,010	981	892 974	98r 	1,005	

Subsidiary Table IV.—Number of females per 1,000 males for certain selected races.

		Number of Females per 1,000 males,								
Race		All ages.	o <del></del> 5	512	12-15	15—40	40 and over.			
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		. 2	3	4	5.	. 6	7			
Talaing Karen Arakanese Shan Chin Kachin Wa-Palaung Danu Taungthu Chinese		1,014 1,007 943 1,010 1,027 1,010 984 1,012 998 375	1,025 1,047 990 956 1,103 1,155 970 1,078 781 565	1,040 1,012 1,003 968 1,005 873 1,189 1,119 920 461	976 1,002 869 925 780 750 873 1,052 1,437 522	1,057 1,039 932 1,034 1,095 1,072 1,015 994 1,143 243	904 897 918 1,098 987 1,029 994 923 879 302			

#### CHAPTER VII.

### Civil Condition.

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128. Marriage Customs of the Burmese.—It is inevitable that a race so highly individualised as the Burmese should have evolved its social and domestic customs on lines differing widely from those of neighbouring peoples. Marriage, in common with other developments of national life, illustrates the wide separation in modes of thought between the Burmese and the majority of oriental races. There is a universal possibility of social intercourse between the young people of both sexes, which gives them an opportunity for the mutual selection of their life companions that is rare even among western races.

According to the laws of Menu there are three ways in which a marriage can

be brought about :-

1. When the parents of the couple give them to one another.

2. When they come together through the good offices of a go-between, called an oung bwe.

3. When they arrange the matter between themselves.

The third method is responsible for over ninety per cent, of the marriages effected. It is only when there is great wealth or social position that the parents limit the choice of their children, and it is only when there are obstacles in the course of true love that the offices of the go-between, beyond those of a merely formal nature, are needed. The marriage ceremony itself is devoid of any religious sanction, the relation of husband and wife being of a purely secular nature. The following quotation from the standard werk on the Burman by Sir George Scott indicates the highly privileged position possessed by a married woman in Burma:—

"This recommendation to the married state is no more needed by Burmese maidens than it is by their sisters in other parts of the world, and they have the further inducement that they enjoy a much freer and happier position than in any other Eastern country, and in some respects are better off even than women in England. All the money and possessions which a girl brings with her on marriage are kept carefully separate for the benefit of her children or heirs, and she carries her property away with her it she is divorced, besides anything she may have added to it in the interim by her own trading or by inheritance. Thus a married Burmese woman is much more independent than any European even in the most advanced states. In the eyes of the Dammathat the old idea of the "Patria potestas" prevails indeed, and woman is regarded as a simple chattel, belonging entirely to her parents, and to be disposed of by them without any reference to her personal inclinations; but, as a matter of fact, she may do pretty well as she pleases, may marry the youth on whom she has fixed her affections, and may separate herself from the husband who has offended her by going before the village elders and stating her case; and if the complaint is just, her request is never refused."

Marriage is indeed a civil contract dissolvable by either party practically at will. A woman can obtain a divorce on the following grounds:—

(i) that her husband is poor and unable to support her,

(ii) that he is idle and will not work;

(iii) that he is incapacitated by being old, or a cripple or a chronic invalid.

A man can obtain a divorce just as readily,-

(i) if his wife has no male children;(ii) if she does not love her husband;

(iii) if she visits houses or friends against her husband's wish.

Despite the purely secular nature of the marriage contract and the extreme freedom of divorce there is a high standard of family life. The indefinite continuance of ill-assorted and uncongenial unions is rendered impossible, and yet there is a sufficient public opinion to restrict recourse to divorce proceedings unless there is a well-established cause for separation.

129. Two Relics of Primitive Marriage.—There are two practices connected with the marriage ceremony among the Burmese which throw some

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light on the primitive marriage customs of the race. They may be described in the words of Sir George Scott:—

"In the country villages, however, two ancient customs are still very generally prevalent. The one is to tie a string across the road along which the bridegroom must pass to the house of his intended. He comes in procession with all his friends, carrying the greater portion of the belongings with which he intends to set up house; a bundle of mats, a long arm-chair, a teak box, mattresses, pillows, besides materials for the feast and presents for the bride. The people who have put up the string—called the gold or silver cord—usually young men intent on a jollification of their own, stop the happy man, and threaten to break the string with a curse on the married couple unless some money is given them. It is simple extortion, and English district officers forbid it. Nevertheless the speculation is usually successful. I suppose no one feels very niggardly on his marriage day.

"The other custom is much more singular, more ancient, and infinitely more disagreeable. On the night of the marriage a band of young bachelors of the place come and shower stones and sticks on the roof of the house where the happy couple are, keeping up sometimes such a sustained battery that the thatch or wooden shingles suffer materially, while the furniture and even the inmates occasionally do not escape injury. In Lower Burma the lads are usually bought off with a sum of money, and where the officials do not interfere to

prevent it, the custom has degenerated into a system of extortion".

The origin of both these customs seems to date back to a period when each tribe lived in a state of sexual promiscuity. In such a state the appropriation of one woman by one single man in marriage infringes on the rights of the remaining males of the tribe. These naturally show their resentment at the curtailment of their rights, and it is necessary to compensate them in some other direction. In both instances it is the young men or young bachelors who maintain the practices and it would be among such unattached males in a primitive tribe that such a custom would originate. Sir George Scott gives a legendary explanation of the second custom which supports this hypothesis:—

"The learned in Burmese folk-lore assign it a much higher and more estimable beginning. When, after the world was formed, it was first peopled from the superior heavens of the Byammahs, of the nine that remained behind, weighed down by the gross earthly food they had eaten, five gradually became men and four women, when these Byammah-gyee koh-youk, these nine great ancestors of the Burmese and of all mankind, had gradually degenerated, through the substitution of Pahdahlahtah for the original favoured earth, and of Thalay rice for the leguminous creeper, desire arose among them, and four of the men took the four women to wife. The fifth man naturally resented being left compulsorily single, and pelted the happy couples with stones on their marriage night. Sympathy with the feelings of this archetypal bachelor has perpetuated the stone throwing by the loobyos down to the present day, and if there is no dearth of eligible spinsters in our times, the lonely bachelor may be allowed to express his envy at his friend's bliss without being accused of nothing but gross cupidity.

130. Marriage Customs among non-Burmese Races.—There exists an almost bewildering variety of marriage customs among the tribes and races to be found within the province. A complete description of them would expand this chapter beyond all reasonable limits. All that is possible is to glance briefly at a few salient points of the practices of the principal races. Among the Shans, marriage customs differ but little from those observed among the Burmese. There is the same freedom of selection, accompanied by an even more rapid marriage once the minds of the two people concerned have been made up. Divorce is equally free, mutual consent being all that is necessary. With the Talaings very similar customs prevail. But with the Karens there appear to be different customs, different prohibitions, and different practices with every tribe. Generally, there is great exclusiveness as to the persons who may marry, tribal and racial endogamy being the rule, developing into family endogamy among certain But the wide variations existing may be seen by comparing the marriage practices of the Sawngtung with those of the Sinsin Karens. Both are of identical racial origin, but whereas the Sawngtungs permit marriage between near relations only, the Sinsins permit intermarriage not only outside the family, but also outside the tribe, with the Taungthus, and even outside the race, with the With the Chins, marriage customs vary from tribe to tribe, but generally marriage is a mere matter of purchase, the capacity of the wife as a field labourer being the principal consideration. The Kachin marriage customs and prohibitions would require a volume for adequate treatment. Special aspects such as the great moral laxity prevailing before marriage and the peculiar class exogamy practised are separately noticed. The actual marriage ceremony combines the idea of purchase from the parents with that of abduction. The abduction is first effected by means of an agent who then informs the parents and

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him. Fortunately her husband noticed the tray which was being carried by her atterdant.

"'What have you there?'

"'Turtle's eggs,' she replied 'I'm going to call on the judge.'

"'You silly woman' said her husband.

"'He'll kick you out of the house. Don't you know he's a Talaing."

"And now if my friend considers that this story should not have been published, he can avenge himself by amplifying and pointing out the inaccuracy in the following

"Talaings are of two kinds, the Buffalo Talaing (Kywè Talaing) and the Lake Talaing (In-Talaing). The former dwelt in Moulmein and Pegu, the latter in the delta round Bassein. The following customs are reported in connection with the Lake Talaings, whether they are observed also by the Buffalo Talaing I do not know.

"If a Talaing met a turtle in his path he had to look away, pretending that there was an unwholesome smell about, and exclaiming 'Rotten Rotten.' If, however, he found one in his home, or if one was brought there inadvertently by some stranger, or some small boy who thought to have picked up a good dinner by the wayside it had to be immediately killed and caten. And the small boy was spanked. On no condition was he permitted to release it if once it crossed the threshold. Should be do so he would infallibly incur the displeasure of the guardian spirit, and illness or some other serious misfortune would ensue.

"A point of some interest is that an annual offering had to be made at the time of harvest. In certain fishing villages of England there are similarly harvest offerings of fish. But I was ignorant that this variation on the rites of Bonmagyi existed in Burma when I contributed a note on harvest offerings to the first number of this Journal. At this festival a turtle has to be killed and eaten, while a 'nga-yan,' is dressed with a nose-rope like a buffalo and offered up alive. The ceremony is termed both Nat-kun and Nat-kana but I do not know whether the last syllables are Burmese or Talaing, but as. 'Ka' is the Talaing for 'fish' they may possibly be Talaing. I do not know the meaning. Nor do I know the name of the nat, but this is obtainable from the Maung Kan Vara win and the Knimpin daing Varawin. Yaza win and the Kyimyin daing Yazawin.

"There was formerly a song current in Moulmein, suggestive of endogamic observances,

telling the said story of an Upper Burman who fell in love with a Talaing maiden:-

I met a maid and fain, Would have wed her; Now I reckon little odds, What I offer to the gods, But who can tell what hurt'll Come of murdering a turtle, So I fled her."

Mr. Furnival is of the opinion that there must be similar customs traceable among the other races of Burma, and now that there is a Research Society formed with the special intention of furthering studies of this nature, it is probable that a complete examination of totemistic survivals in Burma will shortly be effected.

133. Endogamy and Exogamy.—The phenomena of marriage restrictions, so fundamental in a country where caste prohibitions are supreme, are of comparative unimportance where caste is almost unknown. As will be seen on reference to the chapters on language and ethnography (IX & XI) of this volume, one of the most remarkable characteristics of the tribes and races of Burma is their racial Tribal and racial designations are assumed and discarded without any reference to the actual racial origin of a community. Restrictions whether exogamous or endogamous can easily be circumvented by racial fictions which are familiar to every race and tribe in the province. The extremely large number of indeterminate and hybrid tribes is a testimony to the prevailing catholic beliefs and practices on the question of intermarriage. Racial and tribal barriers are so flimsy compared with caste barriers that the necessary for prohibitive rules and punishments for breaches of them is not urgently felt. The only instances of true endogamy and exogamy to be found in the country are among tribes and races far removed from the national life. They are either in unadministered territories, or in territories specially administered. They lose their significance and become greatly modified as the people among whom they are practised come in contact with other races. They are the exceptions rather than the rule in the life of the people. They are the relics of a tribal life fast disappearing. They are an accidental rather than an essential feature in the ethnical and marital customs of the province

The prohibited degrees of marriage among the Burmese are few. with mother, daughter, sister and half sister (except in the case of the ruling sovereign, where it is enjoined), aunt, grandmother and granddaughter are

The marriage of a son with his stepmother is permitted by the Dammathats, but it is extremely doubtful if advantage is ever taken of such permission, and it would certainly be considered with great disfavour by the general com-Among the Shans, a man may not marry his own or his wife's mother, grandmother, aunt or his sisters, and conversely with a woman, but all other alliances are permissible.

134 Endogamy among the Zayein or Sawngtung Karens.—The practice of Endogamy is found most frequently among the Karens. carried to an extreme form among the Zayeins, a tribe of Karens inhabiting the Loilong and Mong Pai States within the jurisdiction of the Southern Shan States. The following description of their marriage restrictions taken from the Gazetteer of Upper Burma and the Shan States, from an account by Mr. F. H. Giles is worthy of quotation if only because of its contrast with the general freedom prevailing in Burma as to the selection of partners in marriage:-

"When they reach the age of puberty all boys are made to live in a building called a haw, which stands just outside the village, and from the time of their entering this haw till their marriage they may not enter the houses of their parents, nor talk to any of the young

women of the village.

"The marriage customs of the race are very singular and are so strictly adhered to that it seems certain that the race must in process of time become extinct. There are many greyhaired bachelors in the haws and many aged spinsters in the villages, whom Sawng-tung custom has prevented from marrying. Marriages are only permitted between near relations, such as cousins, and then only when the union is approved by the elders. The parents of the young man make their selection from among the eligible girls, consult the village elders, and then send the young woman three brass leg rings in the name of their son. The girl signifies consent or rejection by wearing or sending back the rings. If she constant the description of both for the parents of both for the parents of both for the parents of both for the parents of both for the parents of both for the parents of both for the parents of both for the parents of both for the parents of both for the parents of both for the parents of both for the parents of both for the parents of both for the parents of both for the parents of both for the parents of both for the parents of both for the parents of both for the parents of both for the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the parents of the pare sents, the parents of both families prepare a great feast; the Hmaw-Saya offers up some rice to propitiate the nats, and eating and drinking are carried on for three successive nights. Unmarried men and women meet only on these occasions, but none but relations of the bride and bride-groom are admitted. The marriage feasts seem to be particularly disgraceful orgies and constitute the whole marriage ceremony. They seem as scandalous as the Agapæ which the Council of Carthage denounced as being no better than the Parentalia of

"This limitation of marriage to near relations only, results frequently in unions where husband and wife are very unequal in age, the husband fifteen and the wife seventy, or the reverse, widows and widowers may re-marry if the village elders approve. If a Sawngtung woman eloped with a Shan, Taungthu or Burman, the former custom was to kill the offending pair. A large hole was dug in the ground. Across this a log was placed to which two ropes were fastened. The ends of these were noosed round the necks of the man and

woman and they were made to jump into the pit and so hanged themselves. Now the custom is to excommunicate the woman; cases of the kind are said to be very rare.

"When the man and maid run off together without obtaining the permission of any one, they are forbidden ever to enter their native village, or any Sawng-tung village, again. The two villages of Kara in the Nan-kwo circle are said to be entirely inhabited by such eloping couples.

"A childless widow, on the death of her husband, is permitted to return to the house of If she has children, she remains in her husband's house, or goes to live with her parents.

his parents.

"Polygamy is not permitted. Restrictions on marriage are multiplied by the rule that only certain villages may intermarry with certain villages. Villagers of Ban-pa, Nan-kwo, Sawng-ke, Lon-kye may intermarry. Loi-long, Kathe (Mong Pai) and Loi-pwi only can intermarry.

"Salon, Baw-han, Ka-la, Hkun-hawt, Me-sun (Mong-pai) and Loi-sang (Mong-pai) are

similarly grouped.

"The villagers of Pa-blaing cannot go farther for wives than the village of Kawn-

sawng. "Karathi, Me-ye, Wa-tan and Din Klawng, the last three in Mong Pai, have to seek alliances in no other villages.

"La-mung, Ta-plaw, Daung-lang and Lang-ye for the last group.
"If an unmarried woman becomes pregnant, she is forced by the elders to disclose the name of her seducer. If he admits the truth of the accusation, the pair are condemned to commit suicide in the manner described above, by jumping into a pit with ropes round their necks. No case of the kind has occurred within the memory of the present generation."

135. Endogamy among the Banyang Karens.—The Banyang Karens have not appeared in the Census Records. Nevertheless their marriage customs are so remarkable, not only for their endogamous nature but also for the absence of any degree of individual freedom among the contracting parties that the following extract from the Gazeetter of the Upper Burma and the Shan States is worthy of quotation:---

"The Banyang, or Banyok race is extremely reduced in numbers. According to Mr. Giles, it is found only in the Banyin village of Loi-long, which contains no more than six houses, situated at the foot of Byingye hill, and in Karathi, a village in the Pyinmana subdivision of Yamethin district.

"This paucity of numbers is, it would seem, due to their extraordinary marriage customs. Mr. Giles says there is no giving and taking in marriage as with all other races in the world. It is only when a high official, such as a Taungsa, visits Banyin that there are any marriages This personage orders a couple to be married and married they are, just as a man might be sworn of the peace. The Taungsa Gonwara makes a point of going there once a year so as to ensure at least one marriage in the twelvemonth. It appears that matters are further complicated by the fact that the contracting parties must be relations, as is the custom with the Swang-tung race. In a village of only six houses, however, where custom has decreed cross-marriages for many years, this requirement should be very easily fulfilled. The men are said to be very averse to marriage and 'have frequently to be taken by force to the bride's house.' This sounds very Gilbertian and one can only hope that the lady is not

"The official who makes these marriages seems to be let off very easily with a marriage present consisting of nothing more costly than two pots of liquor. The village, however, prepares a feast at which every one is present. From the banquet the newly married couple are taken to a house and are not allowed to leave it for three days, during which time the village provides them with food. The banquet and the order of the Taung-sa constitute the entire wedding ceremony. The parents on either side seem to have nothing to say in the matter. Persumably, however, in a six-house village, where there is one marriage at any rate every year, couples are very clearly marked out for one another. This may account for the alleged coyness of the men. There are some races in Australia who also practice the same sort of in-marriages, the most extreme contrast to the custom of exogamy which is so much

more prevalent among uncivilised and totemistic races.
"It is said that many years ago Banyin used to intermarry with Pahlaing village; some generations back, however, the two villages quarrelled and since then Banyin has been a very close marriage market. Intermarriage, even by the men, with those of another race was never permissible. There is no hint of marriages of inclination. They are all a sit were officially gazetted alliances. There is nothing against widows remarrying; in fact they must, if the Taung-sa happens to order it. Since there is so much worry in marrying the people, it is not surprising to hear that divorces are not permitted."

- 136. Endogamy among other Karen Tribes.—The above two examples have been given at length because they are an exception to the general rule of extreme liberty of choice permitted within the province to aspirants to the status of marriage. The former Karen practice under which marriage with blood relations was customary has now generally disappeared. Among the Karens generally, endogamy is the rule to the extent that intermarriage with non-Karen races is comparatively rare. In the districts of the delta, villages are usually either exclusively Karen or exclusively Burmese; or, if there is a composite village, the Burmese or Karen sections have but little intercourse with each other. Karens by natural instinct intermarry among themselves, and this practice is encouraged by missionary influence which is strenuously exercised to develop their racial life and progress. But apart from this general instinct against marriage with other races, there is great freedom to intermarry among the various tribes of The Manu tribe is the result of intermarriage between the Brès and the Red Karens. This freedom of intermarriage is greatly curtailed by the extremely early age at which marriage takes place among the Brè, Manu and Red Karen tribes. Such intermarriages are generally arranged by the parents, and marriage between persons living in the same village are the rule, and between persons of the same family not infrequent. Much greater freedom is permitted among the Padaungs, the Sinsins, the Mèpu and the Taungthu tribes, though this seldom results in intermarriage with persons of non-Karen race.
- 137. Exogamy among the Chins.—The practice of exogamy, or prohibition of marriage between members of the same tribe or village or group or section, is unknown throughout the plains and the eastern hill regions of Burma. Beyond the customary restrictions imposed on persons of near blood relationship exogamy is unknown except among the Kachins, the Lisus, and to a less degree, among the Chin tribes of the province. Exven among the Chin tribes, the custom of intermarriage between neighbouring tribes is not true exogamy. It is not a prohibition of marriage within a tribe or group. It is a diplomatic arrangement for strengthening the power of the chiefs and consolidating the power of the class. A custom for the purpose of ensuring the friendship of rival villages by intermarriage can scarcely be termed exogamy in the prohibitive or restrictive sense of the term. Moreover the practice exists to a very slight

degree. In the northern portions of the Chin Hills such questions of intermarriage do not arise. Parents practically sell their daughters to be wives and they demand a certain price for them. The considerations determining marriage are purely commercial. The only questions asked by the parents of the young man regarding the girl is as to how thoroughly and quickly she can clear a hillside of weeds, or how long it takes her to plant a patch of millet. Even in the south, where intermarriage with neighbouring tribes for political reasons is sometimes practised, it does not affect the whole of the population. It is principally concerned with the families of the tribal chiefs. The common people are free to exercise their commercial instincts in their marriage arrangements, though they sometimes ape the diplomatic customs of their chiefs.

138. Exogamy among the Kachins.—The following extract from Mr. George's well-known memorandum on the Kachins on the northern frontier of Burma indicates the precise nature and extent of exogamy as practised amongst them twenty years ago:-

"A man may not marry a woman of the same surname. It seems to be a general rule that a man should marry a first cousin on the female side, i.e, daughter of a mother's brother. He may not, however, marry his father's sister's child, who is regarded as closely related, blood connection being preferably traced through the female. The rule, however, seems much relaxed among the "Janpyaw" Kachins, where it is not compulsory; but I have been told that higher north, if there is a marriageable first cousin whom a man out of perversity does not want to marry, he can marry elsewhere only after paying a fine to the injured parents of the damsel. I say injured parents, as it is they who lose in not getting her price from the husband.

"The forbidden degrees of consanguinity are-

'(1) Parents and grand-parents.'

(2) Children and grand-children.'
(3) Father's sister's child.'
(4) Father's brother's child (because of same name).'
(5) Mother's sister's child.'

' (6) Uncle's child. '(7) Aunt's child.'

"Among the Szis (I am not sure about other tribes) there is an arrangement whereby a tamily is, so to speak, parent-in-law to another family generally and gives females only to the members of the latter family. The families being thus regarded as connections, it is not competent for the first family to demand females in marriage from the second family, so they have to get theirs from some other one. There appears to be a well recognised series of families to which each family either gives or from which it takes females in marriage.

"Thus the following families:-

'Malang,' 'Hpau Yan,' 'Mislu,' 'Taw Shi,' 'Laban,' 'Sinhang,'

"may take females of the family of Chumluts, but the Chumlut family has to go for its consorts to other families, e.g.,—
'Num Taw.'

'Hpanyu.' 'Jang Naw.' 'Hpu Kawn.' Lumaw. 'Tummaw.'

"The only restraining influence compelling adherence to these rules is popular opinion. No particular punishment seems to be inflicted for breach of these sexual rules. Polyandry does not exist, but only polygamy is permissible. For a man, however, to take more than two wives is rare; sometimes, however, he cannot help himself. Successive brothers are supposed to take unto themselves deceased elder brother's widows. Occasionally, when the working of this rule would be a hardship from giving one man a plethora of females, it is permissible to make an arrangement for a still younger brother or even a stranger to take the widow. The widow has to be taken care of and fed by her husband's family even if none of them will act the part of the husband by her. If they do not, she returns to her own household, and then this constitutes a 'debt', which has to be liquidated in blood or The reason given for permitting polygamy is that thereby barrenness is provided against, but, although permissible, it is not only practised, monogamy being said to be fairly prevalent."

The Rev. G. J. Geis, of the American Baptist Mission, Myitkyina, has kindly supplemented these notes by a description of the practice as it has now survived :-

"According to the Kachin folklore the five main tribes descended from their great ancestor called Wahket wa. These are: Marips, Lahpai, Lahtawng, N'Hkum and Maran From these main tribes sprang the various sub-tribes, usually some distinguished ancestor, in folklore distinguished for his many wives and numerous children, so that his descendants look to him as their great ancestor rather than to the more remote ancestor who stands at the head of the main tribe. In this way the various sub-tribes originated, and so we have from the

' Marips-the Manam, Jasan Shadau, Hpaudaw, etc.

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"Lahtawng-N'Tau, Hpungkaw N Shu, Hkabra, Wala, Hpaujang, etc.
"Lahpai-Hpunggan, Kadrawn, Tsumhpawng, Hkubum, Hkashang, Kara Woisau, Kumba Hkangkawng, etc.

" N Hkum.—Share, Tsit, Sumdu, Lahtau, Ding Ga, etc. " Maran.-Ningshan, Wayaw, Kumtung, Kumyang, etc.

"Aside from these five main tribes who trace their pedigree through Wahket Wa there are a few tribes who say they existed before him and do not claim Wahket Wa as their ancestor, such as the Kareng and Hpauwe.

"Originally none of these main tribes took daughters as wives from within their own tribe, because they were considered brothers and sisters, an exception was made with the Lahpai, they being the tribe from whom chiefs were made, were allowed to intermarry after

seven generations.

"In time, however, these tribes widely scattered, and as stated above some of the men within a tribe became renowned so that gradually these renowned families of the same tribe intermarried, so at the present time all the main tribes intermarry with the large subtribes or powerful families of the same tribe. A Hpungkaw Lahtawng may for instance marry a Hpaujang Lahtawng, etc. So that at present the most important question is not, is the girl whom the young man is about to marry of a marriageable tribe, but rather has her branch of the great family been far enough removed in point of time and have his parents been in the habit of taking women from that branch of the family or not. Of course the more respectable families are rather careful to observe these customs, but as no penalty follows a breach of this custom their observance has become rather lax, and many do not question much the time nor the relationship but marry whom they can secure either from sentiment or economic

"A subtribe of the Marips who live in the Hkahku country follow a rather strange custom for which they are called Hkau Wang. A certain number of families or even a whole village give their daughters around in a circle, A gives to B and B gives to C and C gives to D and D gives in turn to A. In each case a record is kept of the price paid for the wife, and so not more is given or asked than was asked or given when a marriage took place in the given family. In case an outsider, however, asks for a daughter from this circle or village a much higher price may be asked."

139. Exogamy among the Lisu Tribe.—The following note on the marriage customs of the Yawyin or Lisu, a tribe on the upper reaches of the Salween river has been supplied by the Rev. G. J. Geis:

"Yawyins trace their descent from a brother and sister who saved their lives in the

great flood by taking refuge in a huge pumpkin; their first born was the father of the Yawyins and from him descended the following great families.

"Kuhpa, Tsau Ja, Ngaw Hpa, Hkaw Hpa, Lama, Waw Hpa (pronounce short), Waw Hpa (pron. long), Tawng Ja, Ze Hpa, Bya Hpa, Li Ja and N Naw Hpa. In seeking or taking a wife a man may take a woman from any of the families but his own, because women of his own family make offerings to the same ancestors and so are considered brothers and sisters, no matter how remote they may be from one another in time or distance.

"In spite of the fact, however, that a Yawyin man has theoretically all the maidens outside of those bearing his family name to choose from, yet in practice from economic

reasons he is very limited in his choice.

"The elders of the village or near relatives of a man usually seek a woman for him among the families to whom his family has given a woman in marriage in a previous generation, so that a man usually marries either his maternal or paternal cousin. For instance, a Kuhpa man takes a Lama woman, in the next generation a Lama man may ask for a Kuhpa woman, and so on back and forth for successive generations.

"This narrow circle of marriage relationship is due to the fact that a careful record is kept of the price paid for a woman at the time of marriage, so that in the next generation when a woman is wanted by a family it naturally seeks one among the families of whom it had given a woman in the past, for that family dare not ask more or a larger price than they

had received.

"It is only when a man is unable to find a suitable woman among the families with whom his family had been accustomed to intermarry that he will seek a woman outside of this circle; for by going outside of his marriage relationship he must usually pay a much larger price for his wife. A man may, however, take a woman other than a Yawyin without incurring the loss of prestige among his people, in fact he may enhance it, if the woman should come from some more powerful neighbour as the Chinese. Should a man, however, cohabit with a woman of his own family or one bearing his family name, the man is expelled from his family and told not to call himself any longer by his former name, because of the great shame he has brought upon them and his ancestors.

"Unlike Kachin maidens Yawyin maidens live a rather chaste life. Should a man,

however, have sexual intercourse with a maiden he must either marry her, if she has not been promised to another or pay a heavy fine in silver or gold; in case she had been promised to another, that man may take her at once without paying the usual price, as she by her infidelity has hastened the marriage, this price may be paid any time later. Should there be any issue from this sexual intercourse the illegitimate child belongs to the mother

and can never be claimed by the father as is customary among Kachins."

140. Cross-Cousin Marriage.—Among Mahomedans and all classes of the

population in Southern India cousin marriage is prevalent. In Burma, its most vigorous survival is amongst the Chins. The following description of the extent to which the custom prevails and the cause of its origin is taken from the British Burma Gazetteer published in 1880:—

"Among the Chins, who occupy the eastern and western slopes of the Arakan mountains, daughters as soon as born are given to one of their brothers or if there is no brother to one of their father's sister's sons who in after life gives her away in marriage and who is always treated with great respect by the husband. Girls are usually affianced when young to one of their cousins but the match is not unfrequently broken off by one or the other, in which case a fine has to be paid for the breach of promise. The marriage feast is prepared in the bride's house, after the wisemen have inspected the liver of a pig in the bridegroom's and pronounced the omens to be favourable; if the liver is unpropitious on three successive occasions the match is broken off and the girl's parents make presents to the bridegroom. When the marriage is about to take place the bridegroom provides large quantities of khoung, a fermented liquor made from rice of which the Chins are inordinately fond and his friends bring pork and the girl's family produce fowls. In the centre is placed the pot of liquor and in it is fastened a neatly-pealed bamboo with a cross piece let into a slit at the top, this separates the two parties and any one crossing from one side to the other has to pay a pot of khoung as a fine. An elder on the bridegroom's side proposes that the marriage shall take place and an elder on the bride's side recites the decision of Hlee-neu, the common ancestor of all human beings, on being applied to by the founders of the Chin race who were brother and sister, viz., that they should marry, and their sons marry their daughters, but that in all subsequent generations, brothers' sons should, whenever possible, marry sisters' daughters. The bridegroom makes presents to the brother who owns the bride who, if he is satisfied, signifies his assent by eating some of the bridegroom's pork and the ceremony is complete; bridal presents are given and eating and drinking commence; should any of the bridegroom's party touch the fowls or of the

It is significant that in the Chin Hills Gazetteer published in 1896, although of marriage customs are treated at some length no reference is made to cross-cousin marriage, which indicates that the practice, far from being universal, is gradually dying out.

Instances of cousin marriage and marriage of near relations among the

Karens are given in the extracts quoted in paragraphs 134 and 135 above.

Other instances of cross-cousin marriage are to be found among the Kachins, the Lisus and the Palaungs. They are permissive rather than compulsory. Among the Kachins a man may not marry a woman of the same surname, but it is a general rule that he should marry a first cousin on the female side, that is, the daughter of a mother's brother. He may not, however, marry his father's sister's The better families observe these customs, but those who are of poor stock and have no reputation to uphold have no scruples about violating the traditional Among the Lisus, cross-cousin marriage is based on commercial considerations. The elders of the village or near relatives of a man usually seek a woman for him among the families to whom his family had given a woman in marriage in a previous generation, so that a man usually marries either his maternal or paternal cousin. For instance, a Kuhpa man takes a Lama woman, the next generation a Lama man may ask for a Kuhpa woman and so on back and forth for successive generations. This narrow circle of marriage relationship is due to the fact that a careful record is kept of the price paid for a woman at the time of marriage, so that in the next generation when a woman is wanted by a family, it naturally seeks one among the families to whom it had given a woman in the past, for that family dare not ask more or a larger price than they had received. Among the Palaungs the general rule followed is that a man may marry his mother's brother's daughter, but may not marry the daughter of his mother's sister, his father's sister or his father's brother. This rule is, however, subject to modifications according to locality.

1.11. Polygamy and Polyandry.—Polyandry is nowhere practised in the province. Polygamy is recognised and practised among all its peoples. Among those races which have come under the influence of Buddhism there is a strong and growing prejudice against polygamy and the practice, though allowable, is rare. It may be said that it exists only amongst those who are above, or are beneath public opinion. Among some of the animistic races there is sometimes compulsory polygamy. Thus, with the Kachins, successive brothers must marry a deceased after brith ris widows, and it may happen that when several brothers die one trother may be saddled with more compulsory wives than he is able to support. It is then permissible to arrange for a younger brother or even a

stranger to take the widow. Among the Chins, whose marriage customs show many points of similarity to those of the Kachins, polygamy is permissible and unrestricted, and a man is compelled to take the wife and children of a deceased brother.

142. Terms of Relationship.—A considerable amount of information has been collected in connection with the census enumeration concerning the different terms of relationship in the various dialects of the province. These are printed as Appendix B of this Report. Considerable information as to marriage customs should be gleaned from a consideration of the following points :-

(a) relationships distinguished in the local nomenclature, but not in English;

(b) relationships, differentiated in English, but not in the vernacular;

(c) terms of relationship which while they have a definite connotation, are

also used in a classificatory sense.

There has however been no time available in the interval between the receipt of the statements and the publication of this Report for a careful examination of their contents. Nor has the Census Superintendent the necessary linguistic and anthropological knowledge to ensure that any conclusions he might draw after a necessarily hurried and superficial study of the statements would be worthy of acceptance. It is hoped that the lists comprising Appendix B of this volume will be of assistance both for reference, and as a means of enabling a complete investigation by competent enquirers of the marriage customs of the province to be initiated.

Birth Customs.—The following notes on the birth customs of the Burmese for which I am indebted to Mrs. Smart of Myingyan, supplement the information given in the first chapter of "The Burman, his life and notions":-

"Before Birth.—As soon as the bearing pains begin, the woman or her mother or a woman friend, offers on her behalf to the Anaukgadaw also called the Anaukmebya, the following;—one pyi of rice in a pyi measure, tour annas, and a few heads of garlic, praying at the same time and saying "Let the door of life be open. Let the new life come forth. Let the pain and sorrow soon be over and the joy last for long, etc."

"After Birth—When the child to how is lorn the midwife draws the new local content.

" After Birth.-When the child (a boy) is born, the midwife draws the navel cord out with seven pulls holding her breath all the while - this is supposed to draw the full life into the child. Less than seven times would mean a proportionate loss of strength—the cord is then placed on a silver coin and cut, and for some reason unknown, only a rupee or eight anna piece is used. This coin becomes the property of the malwine. Very poor parents use a piece of firewood for this cutting, and failing the above mentioned coins, firewood is always used. An important item of the midwife's duties is the measuring of the navel cord which must be measured exactly to the child's nose and cut at that spot. The cutting is done with a cheap knife purchased for this special purpose. This knife, after the operation, is placed in the ashes until the navel cord drops (placing in the ashes is supposed to hasten the dropping of the cord) and is then thrown away.

"The mother now performs the ceremony of propitiation to the Anaukgadaw or Anaukmebya. Holding some uncooked rice in the palm of her band, she shikees to the west and prays as follows: 'Don't frighten or startle me. Don't injure me. Don't cause me to catch my breath, etc.' Then the rice is scattered on the low wooden stand on which she is

to sit for the sweating and this rice prevents the Anaukgadaw from troubling her.

"Each day when she eats or drinks, she holds the dish towards the west saying 'Please do eat and drink,' and after waiting a minute or so, she eats the food or drinks the water. The placenta is buried, care being taken that it is not buried towards that point of the compass that the Naga is facing at the time. (See Note i.) A warm bath is taken every day and the patient is rubbed with saffron three times a day. She takes saffron and salt dissolved in hot water. Before being dissalved the saffron and salt are worked together and formed into balls the size of a hazel nut and three balls are taken at a dose. 'One for the Buddha, one for the law and one for the assembly.'

"Every day the woman is shampooed and bound with a cloth 5 cubits long and her

head is bound with 5 gaung-baungs to prevent headaches.

"Each day at one o'clock she is sweated. Seated in front of a blazing fire she first faces it, then turns her right side to it, then her back and then the left side. The parts of the body not exposed to the fire are heavily covered with cloths, and together with the heat of the fire, produce a profuse perspiration.

"The woman remains indoors for seven days mostly spending them seated on the

Migat, but on the seventh day she must make an effort and take seven steps on the earth.

This followed by a cold bath prevents swelling of the feet, etc.

"The Cradle Ceremony (A Boy).—For the first seven days of his existence little notice is taken of a Burmese child. Beyond being fed and bathed no ceremonies or offerings are made on his behalf—but on the seventh day the Cradle Ceremony takes place.

"Early in the morning a relation or friend goes to market and purchases (1) Cradle;

(2) Rope; (3) Hooks; (4) Cocoanuts; (5) Plantains; (6) Cakes fried in oil; (7) a small

earthen pot; (8) a stick of Kimondi and some soap nut. Nothing must be bought before

the child's birth, as it brings great ill-luck.

"Reaching home, the cradle is thoroughly washed and then hung. At each corner of the cradle is tied a small packet wrapped in a piece of cloth and containing a little paddy, rice, money (more or less according to the circumstances of the parents) grass and various leaves. (See Note ii.)

"Acovering is then spread in the cradle into which is then placed a complete set of men's clothes (preferably a very old man's clothes), a paso, a dah, a razor, gold and silver (the family jewels), a mirror, a comb, a ruby ring if obtainable, and earrings set with any other precious

I'hanaka is then ground and sprinkled in the cradle.

"After the cradle is ready for occupation, the midwife warms the Kimondi and soap nut in the new small chatty, rubs them together and washes the child's head, she then shaves it, catching the hair in a strip of white cloth. Hair and cloth are afterwards placed in the jar and thrown away.

"The child is then fed with the 'Mingala' food or 'Food of ceremony'. Taking a plate of rice and a spoonful of water the midwife places first a grain of rice to the child's lips saying 'Mingala rice'. Throwing away the grain of rice she next carries the water to the child's mouth saying 'Mingala Curry'. This is done three times.

"Seven threads of white cotton twisted together are placed seven on each wrist, seven

on each ankle and seven round the child's neck.

"Cradle and child are now left, in order to attend to the Nats—First the house nat has

to be propitiated and the child nat.
"The house nat is represented in every Burmese house by a cocoanut, which may be seen any day hanging in a cane frame, with red and white threads tied round the upper part of it. These threads are the Nat's gaung baung. Great care must be taken in selecting this fruit. It must be large and without flaw or blemish. The shoots also must be perfect. If not approved by the Nat he will bring trouble on the folk of the house. Often as much as 8 and 12 annas is paid for a particularly fine specimen. This cocoanut is changed three times each year, at Wazo, the beginning of Lent, at Thadingyut, the end of the Lent, and during Tabaung or Tagu, which is called the Nats happy time or 'play time'. It must however never be changed on a Wednesday or on the 4th, 6th or 9th of the waxing, as during that time the Nats are busy elsewhere. At the birth of a child it is also changed.

"The ceremony of the offering on the mother's behalf is then performed. The old cocoanut is removed (afterwards used). The new one is balanced on two bunches of plantains, and on a tray near by are placed 200 arecz-nuts, some flowers and some pickled tea.

"For the child nat on the child's behalf are offered—A round cake with syrup inside. A long cake and a flat cake, some flowers, an egg and some cooked sweet rice. All the above cakes are made of sweet rice flour. The offerings are now placed aside for a while.

"Another cocoanut balanced on two bunches of plantains is carried to the cradle and

placed in it. The cocoanut is then removed and placed under the cradle. The plantains are placed one at the head and one at the foot. After this the child is dressed in two pieces of cloth dyed in saffron (a sort of preliminary shin-byu-ing in case of the child's early death). A pesa is placed on his shoulder and he is then lifted by the midwife seven times as if he took seven steps, and at the seventh he is placed in the cradle. The plantains are removed and the cradle is then rocked to and fro seven times by the oldest man in the house, who at each swing prays or wishes 'May the child live to 120 years of age! May he be wise! May he be rich! May he be beautiful! May he be strong! etc.

"The child is left in the cradle and now the cocoanut which represents the household nat is lifted into its place in the cane hanging frame, and the mother placing the offerings before

it says 'One more slave has been born to serve you—take care of him'

"The offerings to the child nat are then made with the prayer 'Don't pinch my child; don't tickle him; don't make him laugh; don't make him cry'.

"I may here mention that the nat's child is very troublesome and when even the child cries or laughs a lot, or is fretful or wakeful, it is due to being pinched or tickled by this imp of mischief, who has to be propitiated in various ways by being offered a 'golden husband' (a yellow painted doll), a 'golden house', 'golden food', etc.

"The offerings made to this nat must only be eaten by men or boys as the nat does not

approve of persons of her own sex.

"The midwife is now shikoed by the mother of the child, for all these days the child has been owned by the midwife. Now, however, the mother redeems it by payment of four annas. She is then paid and dismissed taking with her the coin on which the navel cord was cut, the plantains and cocoanuts that were placed in the cradle and the four annas redemption money. This must I find be always four annas. The fee can be any amount for the midwife's services, but to redeem the child four annas and nothing else is ever paid. One woman said that four annas tha-nat might originally have had some connection with the word son.

" Note (i)-Naga's face west during Tabaung, Tagu, and Kason.
Naga's face north during Nayon, Wazo, Wagaung.
Naga's face east during Tauthalin, Thadingyut and Tazaungmon.
Naga's face south during Natdaw, Pyatho and Tabodwai.
"Note (ii) The little packets—

"Certain or all, if possible of the following leaves are used but, if all are not obtainable then the child's day leaf must be used if it can be got-

Sunday Cocoanut. Monday Gangaw. ...

Tuesday ... Grass.
Wednesday ... Kayaywet.
Thursday ... Thabyeywet.
Friday ... Thiywet.
Saturday ... Danywet.

"A Girl.—For a girl a woman's clothes are placed in the cradle instead of a man's. The other things are the same, a Thanaka stone being added to the list. Instead of the yellow robe the midwife pretends to bore her ears, just touching the ear with a needle. Also a girl is not lifted seven times before being placed in the cradle.

"The other ceremonies are exactly the same as for a boy.

### STATISTICAL.

144. Statistics.—Next to the fundamental division of sex, the most important categories into which the inhabitants of a community are divided are based on their civil condition, i.e., whether they are unmarried, married or widowed. The materials for an analysis of the figures relating to these three classes of the population are to be found in Imperial Tables VII, VIII and XIV. These are supplemented by the following Subsidiary Tables appended to this Chapter:—

Subsidiary Table I.—Distribution by civil condition of 1,000 of each sex, religion and main age period at each of the last four

censuses.

Subsidiary Table II.—Distribution by civil condition of 1,000 of each sex at certain ages for Buddhists, Animists and all religious combined, by Natural Divisions.

Subsidiary Table III.—Distribution by main age periods and civil condition of 10,000 of each sex and religion.

Subsidiary Table IV.—Proportion of the sexes by civil condition at certain ages for Buddhists, Animists and all religions combined, by Natural Divisions.

Subsidiary Table V.—Distribution by civil condition of 1,000 of each sex at certain ages for selected castes.

145. Marriage proportions for England, India and Burma compared.—In comparing the statistics of marriage for Burma with those for India in general, the first point to be noticed is the small proportion of married persons in Burma as compared with India. Amongst the Hindus, marriage is a religious

sacrament, the neglect of which is followed by evil consequences. A Hindu must marry and beget children to perform his funeral rites lest his spirit wander uneasily in the waste places of the earth. If a Hindu maiden is unmarried at puberty, she is a source of social obloquy to her family and of damnation to her ancestors. In the case of Mahomedans and Animists in India,

Civil condition of 1,000 of each sex.												
	_	Sex.	Unmarried.	Married.	Widowed.							
Burma,	}	Males Females	569 519	ვ8ე 376	42 105							
India, 1901.	}	Males' Females	492 3 <del>14</del>	454 476	54 180							
England, 1901.	}	Males Females	6oS 586	357 340	35 74							

dans and Animists in India, though the religious sanction is wanting, the marriage state is equally common, partly owing to Hindu example and partly to the conditions of life in primitive society where a wife is almost a necessity, both as a domestic drudge and as a helpmate in field work. The difference of conditions in Burma is reflected in the fact that for every 1,000 males 569 are unmarried in Burma, against 492 for India as a whole. Among females the discrepancy is even more noticeable, there being only 344 unmarried females per thousand in India against 519 in Burma. The proportions of married persons naturally exhibit similar discrepancies. Married males in India and Burma are 454 and 389 per thousand respectively, while married females are 476 per thousand in India and 376 per thousand in Burma. The large difference in the proportions of widows, 180 and 105 per thousand in India and in Burma, is partly due to the prohibition of widow marriage among the Hindus, and partly to the freedom of widows to re-marry among the tribes and races of Burma.

The proportions of persons in each civil condition in Burma approaches more nearly to those existing in England than to those of India statement to this paragraph indicates that both for males and females, for persons unmarried, married and widowed, the figures for Burma are considerably beyond the halfway line between India and England. The divergence from Indian conditions and the approximation towards those obtaining in England are more marked in the case of females than of males. Thus the proportions of married persons per thousand in England, Burma and India are 340, 376 and 476 respectively for females and 357, 389 and 454 for males. It is therefore necessary to observe that the general conclusion propounded in paragraph 721 of the India Census Report for 1901 to the effect that marriage in Europe is far less universal than in India applies with a considerable modification of force to the province of Burma.

146. Child Marriage.—The great contrast between marriage in India and in Burma, however, does not lie so much in the general proportions of persons

Married persons per	1,000 of 6	each age p	eriod.	
	0-5.	5—10.	10-15.	15-20.
India, 1901 {  Burma, 1911 {  England, 1901 {  Female Male Female Male Female Male Female	7 13  	36 102 	104 423 1 7 	334 777 78 259 3

in each civil condition, as in the age at which marriage is undertaken. Marriage in Burma before the age of 10 is practically unknown, the absolute numbers of males and females not being sufficient affect a statement calculated at the rate per thousand of children with-

in the age periods 0-5 and 5-10. In India the numbers married at these ages are sufficient to form quite appreciable proportions of the total numbers. In particular, ten per cent. of girls in India between the ages of 5 and 10 are already married. But even at the later ages from 10—15, only one male and seven females per thousand of each sex are married in Burma, against 104 males and 423 females per thousand at similar ages in India. Even at the comparatively late age of 15 to 20, the proportion of married males is less than one-fourth, and of married females is exactly one-third of the corresponding proportions in India. The problem of infant marriage, and even that of child marriage, does not exist in Burma. Allowing for the difference in the ages at which children attain maturity, the age of marriage in Burma is but little earlier than that existing in England. It certainly approximates far more to the English than to the Indian standard. Writing in 1882 Sir George Scott stated that under the old system a young man was not considered of age to marry till he was twenty-four or twenty-five: but that now the age has become very much younger, most men marrying when they are eighteen or nineteen, and

Married Buddhists per 1,000.												
	10—15.	15-20.	20-40.									
Male Female	5	70 248	692 761									

thirteen or fourteen being the common age for girls. The census statistics would however indicate that the tendency towards the marriage of males at a younger age has operated far less than is suggested. The number of Buddhist males recorded as marrying before the age of 20 is only 70 per thousand, as reduction in the masculine age for marriage. The proportions for Buddhist

females married before the age of 15 are identical at five per thousand for Burma in 1911, and for British Burma in 1881, indicating the absence of a tendency towards a reduction in the feminine age for marriage.

147. Marriage between the Ages of 10 and 15.—Columns 6 to 9 of Subsidiary Table I of this chapter indicate a curious departure from the normal proportions of married persons between the ages of 10 and 15 at the census of 1901. Mr. Lowis in commenting on the marked increase in the case of both sexes in the number of married children between ten and fifteen years of age considered that it was indicative merely of the increase in the total of Indian immigrants within the province. But an analysis of the proportions by religions demonstrates that the increase was as marked among the indigenous Buddhist and Animist races as among the immigrant Hindus and Mahomedans. Strangely enough, the increase has not been maintained for these races in the current census.

The proportion of males of all religions, which rose from one per thousand in 1891 to five per thousand in 1901 has returned to the original proportion of one per thousand in 1911. There has been a similar, though not quite 50 complete reaction in the proportion of females which has reverted from 13 per thousand in 1901 to 2 per thousand in 1911 against

Religion.	Sex,	1311.	1961.	1991.	1531,
II religions {	Males	ı	5		· · ·
	Females	7	13	5	8
uddhists 🗧	Females	***	4		•••
	Males	5	10	+	5
nimists {	Females	ġ	19	111	8
lindus {	Malea	36	56	21	38
}	gemales	151	141	02	103
labomedans {	Males .	()	20	] ; ]	5
{	Females	29	85	48	ເຈ

5 per thousand in 1891. The figures for the Buddhist and Animist races show similar enhancements and reactions. It is difficult to draw any definite conclusions from the marked enhancement of the figures for 1901 over those of the three years 1881, 1891 and 1911, but there probably was some adventitious circumstance operating in 1901 to enhance the proportions of married persons between the ages of 10 and 15 above their true level.

148. Widow Marriage.—In Burma there are no restrictions preventing widows from re-marrying. Indeed, among some of the races within the province, the Chins and the Kachins, there is a contrary custom of compulsory widow remarriage, though the statistics of widowhood among these races suggests that the custom is not universally observed. In India, the prohibition of the second

marriage of a widow is classed with child marriage as one of the customs impressing itself distinctly on the census statistics. It is therefore natural that the statistics showing the proportions of widowhood in Burma should show marked divergencies from the corresponding statistics for India. But the whole difference between the two must not be attributed to the prohibition of widow marriage in India and its permission in Burma. An even more potent influence in causing the divergence is the practice of marrying girls in India before they attain physical maturity. This results in a large proportion of child widows in India at ages when girls in Burma

	)	
Age.	India, 1301.	Burma, 1911
5-10 10-15	1 5 18	•••
15-20 20-10 45-60	44 153 503	15 77 205
60 & over	825	630

have not even begun to think of marriage. The close connection between early female marriage and a high proportion of widowhood can be seen in Subsidiary. Table V where the comparatively earlier female marriage of the Arakanese, Kachin and Shan races is accompanied by high proportions of widowhood. The comparatively small number of widows in Burma is therefore due to the operation of two causes. The later female marriage age reduces the number of females who become widows, and this number is still further reduced by the number who re-marry.

149. Marriage by Religions.—It is not necessary to enter into a detailed examination of the marriage statistics of the population by religions. The most important objects of such an analysis would have been to obtain comparisons as to the prevalence of child marriage and the prohibition of widow-marriage, and also to see

how far the statistics indicate the polygamy, hypergamy and of the existence of varying systems of endogamy, exogamy and prohibited degrees among the various religious communities. The questions of child and widow marriage and hypergamy are not of importance in Burma, nor is the amount of poly-

	M	arried penas		
	1	3:22	Faille	Extens Males
Hindus Mahomedans	*** }	120,171 137,712	47,482 <sup>1</sup> 53-254	199,75,

gamy sufficient extent to be appreciable in the census studios. It is are extended doubtful if marriage restrictions influence the census statistics to be

appreciable extent, and even if they did affect the figures, their influence would be detected in the marriage statistics for tribe or race rather than for religion. Moreover, the statistics of marriage by religion are complicated by the amount of intermarriage existing between members of different religions. It is possible for a large number of possible combinations of intermarriage to be effected among the Buddhist, Animist, Hir du, Mahomedan and Christian communities, the members of which, with the exception of the Hindus and Mahomedans, intermarry freely with one another. When to the disturbing effect of intermarriage is added that of migration it is obvious that the results are of too great complexity to enable any particular conclusions to be drawn with certainty. The excess married males among the Hindu community number 109,759 and among the Mahomedan community 58,496. Whether the wives of the excess males are in India, or belong to the indigenous races of Burma, any results based on such disproportionate numbers are bound to be divorced from reality, if treated according to the proportions for each religion separately. For Buddhists, the figures for the province as a whole may be taken, the numbers of Buddhists being so great in comparison with those of all the other religions combined, that the proportions for Buddhists differ but slightly from those for the province. For Animists, a study of marriage by separate races is more profitable than the consideration of proportions over widely varying communities held together by the slender tie of spirit worship.

150. Marriage by Race.—In 1891 Mr. Lowis discussed the question whether the matrimonial limitations of some of the animist races of the province

Race or relig	ion.	Males.	Females
Buddhists Animists Kachins Karens Talaings Chins	1	382 390 389 363 360 395	373 383 373 362 362 404

left any impress on the figures in Imperial Table XIV, and arrived at the conclusion that they did so in the case of the Kachins and the Karens. This conclusion was based on an enumeration of 50,000 of each sex. The proportions for the current census have been based on a wider enumeration, including practically the whole of the races coming within the regular census enumeration. It is a matter of extreme doubt whether the restrictions have left any impress on the tables. The proportions for selected races are given in Subsidiary Table V of this

races are given in Subsidiary Table V of this Chapter. The marriage restrictions of the Kachins have resulted in a proportion of 373 married females per thousand, identical with the proportion for Buddhists in the province, and a higher proportion of married males than for Buddhists. is possible that the exclusiveness of the Karens, and their restrictions of marriage to persons of their own tribe or race has resulted in the low recorded proportions of married persons both male and female; but the proportions of married females among the Talaings, among whom no such restrictions exist, are equally low; and the Talaing proportion of married males is even lower than that of the Karens. The high proportions of married persons among the Chins which Mr. Lowis mentioned with surprise is again manifest in the tables. A study of the proportions for separate races in 1901 led to the conclusion recorded in the Census Report of 1901 that in communities where the marriage tie is so loose and connubial relations are so haphazard as among the hill tribes of Burma, it is almost impossible to predicate with any certainty the outcome of an enumeration of the married by sexes. Considering however the wide diversity of races and conditions, there is not a wide range of variation in the proportions of married persons shown in columns 3 and 21 of Subsidiary Table V. The proportion of married males ranges from 360 per thousand among the Danus and the Talaings to 397 among the Arakanese, and the proportion of married females ranges rather more widely, from 359 among the Taungthus to 408 among the Shans. There would appear to be natural proportions for the province from which the proportions of married persons among its various tribes and races do not diverge widely. The divergencies which exist are influenced by many factors, of which the customary age of marriage and professed marriage restrictions and prohibitions are not the most patent. Intermarriage with other races, and racial instability leading to nominal changes of race, are disturbances which prevent reliable conclusions from being drawn from the data collected.

Subsidiary Table I.—Distribution by Civil Condition of 1,000 of each Sex, Religion and Main Age-period at each of the last four Censuses.

		Unn	narried.		•	Mai	rried.			Wid	lowed.	
Religion, Sex and Age.	1911	1901	1891	1881	1911	1901	1891	1881	1911	1901	1891	1881
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	S	9	10	11	12	13
All Religions.												
Males	569	565	558	579	389	393	394	382	42	42	48	39
0— 5 5—10 10—15 15—20 20—40 40—60 60 and over	1,000 1,000 999 919 298 89	1,000 1,000 995 922 298 88 83	1,000 1,000 999 932 268 49 41	1,coo 1,ooo 999 935 300 57 35	78 665 817 656	5 75 666 814 652	63 686 843 679	 62 661 845 718	 3 37 94 255	 36 98 265	 5 46 108 280	3 39 98 247
Females	519	510	506	519	376	381	378	389	105	109	116	92
0— 5 5—10 10—15 15—20 20—40 40—60 60 and over	1,000 1,000 993 726 160 70' 91	1,000 1,000 987 720 160 68 83	1,000 1,000 995 732 130 35 48	1,000 1,000 992 670 93 19 20	 7 259 763 665 289	265 764 653 282	 5 246 780 686 392	 8 311 839 729 301	  15 77 265 620	 15 76 279 635	 22 90 279 560	 19 68 252 679
Buddhist.									ļ			
Males	575	57 <u>1</u>	568	589	382	386	383	373	43	43	49	38
0— 5 5—10 10—15 15—20 20—40 40—60 60 and ever	1,000 1,000 1,000 927 269 78 87	1,000 1,000 996 931 277 79 81	1,000 1,000 1,000 940 255 48 41	1,000 1,000 1,000 942 284 52 34	70 692 827 653	4 66 686 823 650	55 695 807 6-8	E CHESTER !	73.55	 3 33 38	5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5	3 40 55 47
Females	521	511	507	522	373	379	<b>3</b> 75	<i>j</i> r :	જ છ	:	17 [	ÇT (
0— 5 5—10 10—15 15—20 20—40 40—60 60 and over	1,000 1,000 995 737 161 71 93	60	1,000 1,000 996 744 132 35 37	1,000 1,000 995 686 93 18	5 248 751 670 25:	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·			3 1 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3			

Subsidiary Table I.—Distribution by Civil Condition of 1,000 of each Sex, Religion and Main Age-period at each of the last four Censuses.

(												·
Religion, Sex and Age.		Unma	rried.			Marr	ied.			Wido	wed.	
-sengion, sex and riger	1911	1901	1891	1881	1911	1901	1891	1881	1911	1901	1891	1881
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
							• !					
Hindu.												
Males	483	475	394	451	481	487	571	505	36	38	_ 35	44
0 5 510	999	1,000 994	1,000 1,000	<b>}</b> 998	ı		•••	} 2				
5—10 10—15 15 –20	995 963 802	994 942 813	977 800	962 838	36 194	56 181	21 192	38 159	I 4	 2 6	 2 8	
20—40 40—60	424 233	423 234	350 110	421 162	549 684	549 675	625 803	548 731	27 83	28 91	25 87	31 107
60 and over	220	220	84	113	556	545	657	бзо	221	235	259	257
Females	396	398	364	<b>3</b> 44	525	506	530	554	79	96	106	102
0— 5 ···· 5—10 ····	999 983	1,000 993	1,000 999	} 998	17		i i	} 2	•••	•••	***	•••
15—15	848 272	8 <sub>54</sub> 3 <sup>2</sup> 5	936 319	894 276	715 876	653	653	103 699 868	13	5 22	28	3 25
20-40 40-60 60 and over	75 68 91	94 72 79	64 30 24	81 81	607	843 583 231	869 612 252	600 215	49 325 640	63 345 690	67 358 724	64 382 774
oo and over	91	19	4	**	209	231	252	215	040	. 090	724	774
Mahomedan,												
Males	528	513	476	503	434	445	487	451	38	. 42	37	46
o— 5 5—10	1,000	999	1,000	1,000	,		•••		•••	,,,	•••	•••
15-20	994 858	979 851	995 875	994 894	138	20 142	118	5 102	4	1 7	7	4
20—40 40—60 60 and over	346 135 108	324 128 115	269 46 26	326	618 773 682	035 773 662	863	631 809 716	36 92 210	41 99 223	32 91 244	43 114 242
	100	15		42	002	101	730	/10	4.0	223	-4-1	
Females	511	514	489	472	396	388	397	418	93	98	114	110
o— 5 5—10	999	999	1,000	1,000	 I	, 1			•••	•••	 	 
10—15 : 15—20 20—40	971 413 105	911 412 107	390 67	929 344 53	570 817	85 557 811	48 572 839	69 626 855	17 78	31 82	38 94	30 92
40—60 60 and over	62	7 <sup>2</sup> 87	24	19	610	570 223	598	581	328 706	358 690	378 767	400 797
										·		
Christian.												
Males	613	614	614	624	354	352	352	345	33	·· 34	34	31
05 510	1,000	1,000 1,000	1,000	1,000	"					•••		•••
10—15 15—20	964	994	998 951 418	999	35	58 566	45 552	48 548	 1 26	 2 27	 4 30	 25
20—40 40—60 60 and over	85	407 80 70	50	427 57 27	555 821 699	812	843 729	844	94 236	108	107	99 240
Females		559	543	547	366	365	376	372	80	76	8r	81
. a− 5	1.	1,000	1,000	1,000		305					***	
5—10 10—15	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	4	19	6	9	•••	•••		
15-20 20-40 40-60	197	187	734 149	708	186 749	753	254 788	287 813	4 54	6 60 286	63 294	5 66 296
60 and over		75 97	30	14	315	311	676 312	682 316	589	59 <sup>2</sup>	658	670
	}	į	1	1	}	1	1	1	1			

SUBSIDIARY TABLE II.—Distribution by Civil Condition of 1,000 of each Sex at certain ages for Buddhists, Animists and all Religions jointly in each Natural Division.

3 7									· · · · · ·									
	,					,		77	ales,									
Religion and Natural Division.		All ages.	,		o-5.			5—10.			10-15.			15 - 40.		40 :	and ove	er.
Division.	Unmarried.	Married.	Widowed.	Unmarried.	Married.	Widowed.	Upmarried.	Married.	Widowed.	Unmarried.	Married.	Widowed.	Upmarried.	Married.	Widowed.	Unmarried.	Married.	Widowed.
1	3	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16 .	17	18	19
Province— All Religious	56)	389	42	1,000	•••		1,000	•••		999	1		432	538	30	89	774 778	137
Buddhist Animist	575 568	382 390	43 42	1,000			1,000	•••	•••	999 993	1	••• •••	423 474	547 494	30 32	81 79	778 798	141
Central Basin—  All Religions  Buddhist  Animist	566 568 541	3)2 390 413	43 43 46	1,000 1,000 1,000			1,000 1,000 1,000	***	::: :::	999 1,000	 1		410 405 415	563 571 531	27 24 34	85 82 88	775 777 771	140 141 141
Deltate Plains—  All Religions  Buddhist  Animist	581 525 611	382 368 345	37 37 44	1,000 1,000	••• •••	:::	1,000	 		998 1,000 997	 3	 ::.	455 412 601	522 535 371	23 23 27	113 94 229	754 766 638	133 140 133
Northern Hill Districts— All Religions Buddhist Animist	480 553 557	474 408 372	46 40 34	1,000 1,000			1,000		 	1,000 1,000	 	 	448 422 531	521 547 442	31 31 37	87 82 71	799 800 835	114 118 94
Coast Ranges—																		
All Religions	554 554 <b>5</b> 35	379 388 413	47 48 \$2	1,000		 	1,000	••• •••	••• •••	1,000 999	1		400 390	557 557 565	43 43 45	76 66 82	781 787 771	143 147 147
Specially Administered Territories—  All Religions	557	350 380	53 57	000,1			1,000		· <b></b>	992	1	···	436 437	513 507	\$1 56	50 54	809 800	141 146
Animist	\$57 503	3,55	37	1,000	'   	· ·:: 	1,000		•••	998	1	•••	437	531	34	54	848	118

SUBSIDIARY TABLE II.—Distribution by Civil Condition of 1,000 of each Sex at certain ages for Buddhists, Animists and all Religious jointly in each Natural Division.

								F	emales.							_		
Religion and Natural		\ll ages.			0—5.			5—10.		,	10-15.			1540	•	40	and or	ver.
Division.	Unmarried.	Married.	Widowed.	Unmarried.	Married.	Widowed.	Unmarried.	Married.	Widowed.	Unmarried,	Married.	Widowed.	Unmarried.	Married.	Widowed.	Unmarried,	Married.	Widowed.
I	10	31	23	33	24	25	16	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37
Province—		) !										•						
All Religions Buddhist Animist	519 521 496	376 373 383	105 106 111	1,000 1,000 1,000	 		1,000	•••	 	993 995 991	7 5 9	: :	297 303 306	641 635 627	62 62 67	76 77 54.	554 557 516	370 366 430
Central Basin-		!																
All Religions Buddhist Animist	515 515 425	366 366 406	119 119 99	1,000	 	:::	1,000	•••	 	997 997 992	3 3 8	···	313 315 241	622. 620 708	65 65 43	91 81 57	52) 575 570	386 <b>34</b> 4 373
Deltaic Plains—		t .				1				ļ								
All Religions Buddhist Animist	543 548 538	378 373 360	79 79 93	1,000 1,000	 	:::	1,000	•••	::: :::	991 904 985	9 6 15	•••	314 320 <b>3</b> 14	640 634 63,1,	46 46 - 55	81 79 105	613 599 493	306 322 402
Northern Hill Districts-											.							
All Religions Buddhist Animist	413 497 495	461 403 35)	125 100 146	1,000 1,000	 	:::	1,000	···	::: :::	9 <b>95</b> 9 <b>95</b> 995	5 5 5	 	267 251 342	67 <i>7</i> 698 583	56 51 75	75 7 <b>5</b> 50	546 574 416	379 351 525
Coast Ranges-		Ì																
All Religions Buddhist Animist	507 507 478	396 392 433	77 93 89	1,000 1,000 1,000	 	:::	1,000	•••	  	994 992	10 6 7	 	249 268 233	686 665 717	65 67 50	66 63 \$5	625 589 592	309 348 3 <b>5</b> 3
Specially Administered Territories—																		
All Religions Buddhist Animist	485 481 498	372 371 374	143 148 128	1,000 1,000 1,000	 		1,000	···	::- ::-	994 996 988	· 4		271 258 323	627 631 603	102 111 74	38 38 40	517 532	445 445 431

SUBSIDIARY TABLE III.—Distribution by Main Age-periods and Civil Condition of 10,000 of each Sex and Religion.

			Males.			Females.	
Religion and Age.		Unmarried.	Married.	Widowed.	Unmarried.	Married.	Widowed.
1		2	3	4	5	6	7
				7			
•							
All Religions		5,688	3,894	418	5,186	3,764	1,050
0-10		9,999	ı	•••	9,999	I	•••
10-15	•••	9 <b>,98</b> 6	14	***	9,934	64.	2
15—40		4,322	5,381	297	2,970	6,410	620
40 and over		890	7,742	1,368	761	5,541	3,698
Buddhist		5,752	3,822	426	5,212	8,784	1,054
0—10	•••	10,000	•••	•••	10,000	•••	•••
10—15	•••	9,995	5	***	9,953	45	2
15-40	•••	4,226	5,472	302	3,025	6,351	624
40 and over	•••	806	7,786	1,408	775	<b>5,</b> 56 <b>9</b>	3,656
Animist	•••	<i>5,68</i> 2	3,904	414	4,962	8,827	1,2 <u>1</u>
010	•••	10,000	•••	•••	10,000	•••	•••
10—15	•••	9,990	9	I	9,908	<b>8</b> 6	6
15-40	***	4,737	4,938	3 <sup>2</sup> 5	3,058	6,267	675
40 and over	•••	794	7 <b>,</b> 9 <b>7</b> 5	1,231	541	5,157	4,302
Hindu	•••	4,834	4,805	361	3,961	5,249	790
0-10	•••	9,970	30		9,920	79	1
10-15	•••	9,633	362	5	8,479	1,510	. 11
15—40	•••	4,672	5,077	251	1,073	8,497	430
40 and over	•••	2,318	6,677	1,005	732	5,359	3,909
Mahomedan		5,281	4,339	380	5,105	3,968	927
o—10	•••	9,994	5	I	9,995	4	I
10-15		9,944	56		9,711	287	2
15-40	•••	4,319	5,370	žır	1,813	7,558	629
40 and over	•••	1,297	7,552	1,151	634	5, 128	4,238
Christian		6,126	3,541	333	5,540	3, <b>6</b> 58	· 802
0-10	•••	9,995	5	•••	9,937	3	•••
10-15		9,995	5	•••	9,963	36	ı
12—10		5,289	4,499	212	3,451	6,126	423
40 and over	•••	805	7,936	1,259	828	5,691	3,481

SUBSIDIARY TABLE IV.—Proportion of the Sexes by Civil Condition at certain ages for Buddhists, Animists and all Religions jointly by Natural Divisions.

	!				1	Number	rof Fem	ales per 1	,000 Male	: 6.					
Natural Division		All ages.			0-10,			10-15.			15-40		40	and o	ver.
and Religios,	Unmarritu	Manual.	Wilewest.	Unmanike.	Married,	Widowed	Unmarried,	Married.	Widowed,	Unmarried,	Marrled.	Widowed.	Unmarried.	Married.	Widowed.
1	1	3	4	5	6	7	3	9	10	11	13	13	14	15	16
Province-	-				1			!	!						
All Religions Padahot Aniudit	. :31	219 1'011 211	2,352	1,033		1,500	\$23 545 857		7,200 10,033 7,500	753	1,220	1,920 2,170 1,852	817 997 587	743	2,614 2,695 3,017
Central Basin-	-	}			•		;	ì	•		1			]	
Ad Religions .    Bolizher in Animist in	975 775 785	1,004 1,031 845	3,115	1,015		: :::	951 951 929	4,037	12,003	574	1,120	2,006 2,951 1,214	1,310	973	3,146 3,210 2,150
Deltale Plains-		· •		i t	,		: 5		i .	\$ .	1			i	
All Resident Building Animat	715 1,014 131	- S 711 412	3,0,5	1,001	1,11 5 	1,500	6-3 915 892	3,595 15,145 332		731	1,200	1.6:2 1,7.8 665	577 761 144	631 725 312	1,837 1,125 9 <b>55</b>
Northern Hill Districts.	1			;				•				;			
Ad Religious in Building in Animist in	504 515 515	214 923 243	2 412	1,013 1,013 9:1			1,043 2,3 2,0	1,697 1,691		503		1.5,6 1.549 2,050		652 686 507	
Coast Ranges-				!						į į		ı		ĺ	
All Red flons Habilist Admist	1,225 75 755	1,137	\$13 2,027 2,503	030,1 fy 14.	**	::	-64 54, 605	9.;15 5,373		CO.7	1,161	1,570	695 91) 470	728	1,713 2,216 1,7)7
Specially Adminis- tered Territories.	•			, !								,	,		
All Redgi by		.5.	2,719 2,627 3,957		••	·	.13 5.6 2.5	11.211 15,077 6,773	8,500 6,000	633	1,372	2,136 2,115 2,565	6:0		3,035 2,336 3.737

SUBSIDIARY TABLE V.—Distribution by Civil Condition of 1,000 of each Sex and certain ages for selected races.

### CHAPTER VIII.

### Education.

151. Statistics of Literacy and Meaning of the Term.—The information connected with respect to the literacy of the population has been embodied in Imperial Tables VIII and IX. In the former the literate have been distributed by age and by religion, and in the latter according to race. These details have been supplemented by a series of Subsidiary Tables as follows:—

Subsidiary Table
Subsidiary Table
Subsidiary Table
Subsidiary Table
Subsidiary Table
Subsidiary Table
Subsidiary Table
Subsidiary Table
Subsidiary Table
V.—Progress of education since 1881.

Subsidiary Table VI.—Education by race.

Subsidiary Table VII.—Number of institutions and pupils according to the returns of the Education Department.

Subsidiary Table VIII.—Main results of university examinations.

Subsidiary Table IX.—Number and circulation of newspapers, etc.

Subsidiary Table X.—Number of books published in each language.

The records of literacy for the current census have been simplified by the omission to record the language in which each person is literate. The number of cases in which literacy extended beyond the mother tongue of the person recorded was so small, that the record was not worth the additional trouble entailed by its preparation, or the risk of confusion caused by the additional record involved. The rule for the determination of literacy has been made more definite. In 1901 it was to the effect that all persons of whatever age, who could both read and write any language, were to be classed as literate. At the present census, greater precision was given to the line of demarcation between literacy and illiteracy by the instruction that a person should not be entered as literate unless he was able to write a letter to a friend and read the answer to it. It was felt to be necessary definitely to exclude two classes from the population recorded as literate:—

(i) persons unable to write but able to read in a more or less perfunctory

manner;

(ii) persons whose ability to write is limited to the signature of their own name with difficulty.

The test of literacy was therefore both more definite and more stringent than in 1901.

152. Standard of Literacy.—The question of the comparison of literacy in 1901 and 1911 is inevitably associated with the standard of literacy adopted at the two enumerations. In paragraph 288 of the Census Report for India for 1901, it is stated that the standard of education in Burma is very low, and that it is probable that if any test were applied higher than that imposed by the census, the influence of the monastic schools on the statistics would disappear, and Burma would hold a far lower position in comparison with other provinces than that which it occupied on the basis of the statistics for 1901. This opinion has been justified by the statistics for the current census. The more rigorous application of the test of ability to read and write has produced a reduction in the proportions of literate persons precisely where the monastic schools are most numerous, the Central Basin, the Northern Hill Districts and the Coast Ranges; but has failed to modify the statistics showing the progress of literacy where it is less dependent on monastic teaching, in the districts of the Deltaic Plains, and amongst the women of the province generally. Thus a reference to Subsidiary Table V will show that the districts of Minbu, Magwe, Mandalay, Shwebo and the Upper Chindwin, which in 1901 returned more than a half of their masculine population as being literate, all

Mile Francis per 1900.

1900. 1900.

Control Brown in 4.3 456.

Portrol Province in 454 454.

fall short of that standard in the statistics of the current census. The only districts which now possess a literate population exceeding 50 per cent. are Tharrawaddy, Henzada and Pyapôn, delta districts where the influence of the monastery schools is not so pronounced as in the districts of Upper Burma. A comparison of the general results for the two most important natural

division out the province, the Central Basin and the Deltaic Plains is even more hast active than one for incividual districts. The proportions appear to have changed

places. In 1901, the proportion of male literacy in the Central Basin exceeded that in the Deltaic Plains to an extent represented by the figures 456 and 433 per thousand. In 1911, the proportion of male literates in the Central Basin had fallen to 433 while that in the Deltaic Plains has risen to 454, nearly reversing the positions. The conclusion to be drawn from these contrary variations, is not that there has been a backward movement in education in the former area, but that it contained a large class of persons on the margin of literacy who were included as literates in the census of 1901, and excluded by the more rigorous test of 1911.

153. Comparison of Literacy in 1901 and 1911.—The effect of the more rigorous application of the test for literacy has been to reduce the numbers of

literate males in the province from 378 to 376 per thousand. Its operation has been curiously uneven in different parts of the province, and among males and females. In the districts of the Deltaic Plains the progress of education amongst males has been more than sufficient to counteract the increased stringency of the test; the number of literates increasing from 433 to 454 per thousand. In the Central Basin, the Northern Hill Dis-

Literates per tho	usand, 1	901 <b>—</b> 191	r.	
Natural Divisien.	Ma	les.	Females.	
Tracarat Bijisiani	1911.	1901.	1911.	1901.
Province	376 433 454 356 270 94	378 456 433 379 285 72	61 44 111 26 39 6	45 30 80 21 39 3

ricts and the Coast Ranges the more stringent test has served to produce a reduction in the proportion of masculine literacy. Changes in area in the Specially Administered Territories disguise the real rate of progress, though the figures indicate a genuine advance. Among females the progress made has been more than sufficient to overcome the greater stringency of the test applied, in all the natural divisions except the Coast Ranges, where the proportions are identical for 1901 and 1911. The general resultant for the province is a slight retrogression in the proportion of male literates from 378 to 376 per thousand, while female literacy has increased in a marked manner from 45 to 61 per thousand. Combining both sexes the progress is represented by an increase from 215 per thousand in 1901 to 221 per thousand in 1911.

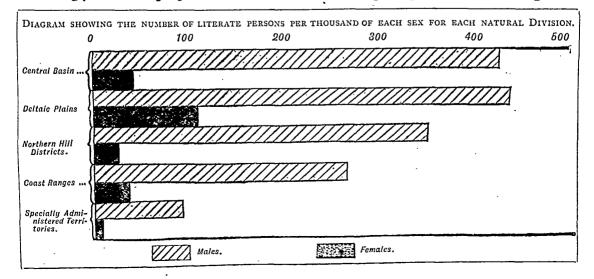
Although there has been but a slight advance generally, and in some respects a set back in the proportions of literacy, the actual figures have shown considerable

progress, there being 446,916 more persons literate in 1911 than in 1901. The increase in the number of male literates, although proportionately less, is absolutely much greater than the increase in the number of female literates. The increase in the number of literate persons in the province from 2,223,962 to 2,670,878

N	umbe	r of persons li	terate, 1901-191	1.	
Year.		Persons,	Males.	Females.	
1911	•••	2,670,878 2,223,962	2,312,883 1,997,074	357,995 226,888	
Increase		446,916	315,809	131,107	

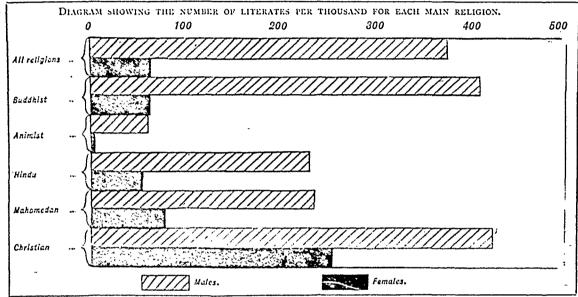
though it has not quite kept pace with the general increase of population, is satisfactory in view of the higher standard adopted at the later enumeration.

154. Literacy by Natural Divisions.—The principal cause influencing the



Buddhist male population of the province. Similarly the Animist and Christian communities of the city of Rangoon show proportions of masculine literacy of 498 and 800 per thousand against corresponding proportions of 59 and 421 per thousand respectively for the province as a whole. The remarkable difference in the constitution of the populations of the cities of Rangoon and Mandalay is reflected in their statistics for literacy. With general proportions not greatly differing, being 416 and 392 per thousand for Rangoon and Mandalay respectively, an analysis by sex reveals marked differences. It has been seen that the large number of illiterate immigrants reduces the proportion of literacy among the males for the city of Rangoon. There is no such large number of illiterate immigrant females. With a disproportionately small female population, and excellent facilities for female education the proportion of feminine literacy in Rangoon is exceedingly high. The Christian and Buddhist communities, with 632 and 382 literate females per thousand respectively, are the principal contributories to the resulting high proportion.

156. Literacy by Religion.—The most surprising feature of the statement



showing literacy by religion is the high proportions of literate Hindus and Mahome-

dans. Whereas Hindus in India have a proportion of fifty literates per thousand, in Burma the proportion rises to 195 per thousand. For Mahomedans the general proportion of literacy in India is only 33 per thousand, but for the Mahomedan community in Burma it amounts to 178 per thousand.

	Litera	cy per thou	sand by rel	igions.			
		Literate.		Literate in English.			
Religion.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	
All religions Buddhist Animist Hindu Mahomedan Christian	221 233 32 195 178 341	376 412 59 230 234 421	61 60 2 53 77 251	6 2 1 24 15 142	9 4 1 28 11 187	2   5 5 94	

One reason of the high proportion of literacy among the Hindus is the fact that they include large numbers of immigrants from Madras, the province which stands next to Another cause influencing the degree of Burma in the order of literacy in India. literacy among both the Hindu and Mahomedan populations is the extent to which they are congregated in urban communities. The great majority of the immigrants from India are recruited to perform urban occupations, many of which are only Educational facilities are also much more plentiful in towns open to literate persons. than in rural areas, and the children of such immigrants have much larger chances of being educated, than would have fallen to their lot in their homes in India. Moreover, Burma is a land of promise to the Indian immigrant. He sees openings for his children in Burma which would not be available in his native country. There is therefore a much greater incentive to the education of Indian children than is to be found in India. The influence of the very wide spread of primary education among the Burmese also influences those races with whom they are brought into contact. Perhaps even more striking than the high proportions of

general literacy among the Hindu and Mahomedan populations, is the marked contrast between the literacy of the female members of these religions in India and in Burma. In India, the proportions of literate females are 5 and 3 per thousand for Hindus and Mahomedans respectively. In Burma they are 53 and 77 per thousand, in the latter case rising above the proportions of literate Buddhist females. The populations for which these proportions are calculated are small, and proportions calculated over populations widely divergent in numbers are apt to be misleading, but they may be taken as proving that the special circumstances under which the Indian population lives in Burma stimulates a high rate of progress, the principal manifestation of which is a high proportion of literacy.

It is the Buddhist community which sets the standard and which governs the proportions of literacy for the province. Whatever may be the respective

Buddhist literates	s per 1,000.	
	Males.	Females.
Province Central Basin Deltaic Plains Northern Hill Districts Coast Ranges Specially Administered Territories.	412 438 495 430 330	60 42 106 30 43 7

proportions for the remaining religions, they are calculated on such small absolute numbers as compared with the Buddhists, that they affect but slightly the figures for the province. The high proportion of 412 literate males per thousand Buddhists is due to the rule, to which there are but few exceptions, that every boy at the age of about eight or nine goes as a matter of course to the monastery school that is to be found in nearly every main village and in many

of the hamlets of the Buddhist portion of the province. The provision for education is both universal and free, and every Buddhist boy is taught both to read and write. The proportion of literates indicates that a considerable proportion do not profit by their teaching to the extent of complying with the census test of literacy, that of being able to write a letter and read the reply to the same. The same facilities of universal education do not exist for Buddhist girls. But the high position obtained by Burmese women has prevented the existence of any prejudice against female education merely on account of sex. The disproportion between the literacy of Buddhist males and females is due to the absence of opportunities for the education of the latter. The deficiency is supplied to a certain extent by lay schools and the proportion of 60 literate Buddhist females per thousand contrasts decisively with a proportion of 7 per thousand for the literacy of the female population of India as a whole.

As was to be expected, the Christian community affords the highest proportion of literacy. It includes the European and Anglo-Indian races, every adoles-

Christian literate	s per 1,000.	
	Males.	Females.
Province Central Basin Deltaic Plains Northern Hill Districts Coast Ranges Specially Administered Territories.	421 627 469 407 327 92	251 396 253 138 278 278

cent and adult member of which is literate. But even among native Christians, the close attention given by the religious leaders of all denominations to the importance of education leads to a high standard of literacy. It is among females that the difference from other religions in this respect is most marked. The proportion of male Christian literates is but slightly higher than that for Buddhist males, the figures being 421 and 412 per thousand respectively.

But the proportion of female Christian literates, exceeding 25 per cent. of the total number, is decidedly above the corresponding proportion for Buddhists, there

Education	a of Christian	s (Actual figur	cs).		
<i>C</i> : (C) (	Total por	ulation.	Literate.		
Class of Christians.	Males,	Females.	Males.	Females.	
Europeans and Allied Races and Anglo- Indians. Native Christians	94,980	8,486 90,562	15,821 30,868	7,311 17,696	

being only 6 per cent. of the total number of Buddhist females who are literate.

As the Christian community comprises two distinct classes, Europeans and Anglo-Indians on the one

hand and native Christians on the other, with greatly varying standards of literacy it is necessary to separate the figures for the two, and calculate their proportions

separately. Practically the whole of the first class are literate, the slight margin representing infants and children who have not attained the age at which ability to

read and write is possible. The proportions for native Christians are 325 and 195 per thousand for males and females respectively. This represents a somewhat lower standard for males than is to be found among Buddhists, but the proportion of female literates among the native Christians is far higher than among the Buddhist community.

The proportion of literacy among the members of Animist tribes and races is enhanced by the inclusion of the

is enhanced by the inclusion of the Chinese population. The extremely low proportions of 59 per thousand for males and 2 per thousand for females would almost vanish if the Chinese were excluded. The indigenous Animists

excluded. The indigenous Animists may be entered as being entirely illiterate. As members of animist tribes or races become educated, they are absorbed either into the Buddhist or the Christian communities. Their only avenues to literacy are through the Buddhistic monastic schools or the various forms of Christian missionary enterprise. The indigenous Animists therefore comprise those numbers of the hill tribes of the province who have not

Education of Christians (	Proportional	figures).		
	Literate per 1,000.			
Class of Christians.	Males.	Females.		
Europeans and Allied Races and Anglo- Indians.	)	862		
Native Christians	325	195		

Animist literates per 1,000.						
	Males.	Females.				
Province Central Basin Deltaic Plains Northern Hill Districts Coast Ranges Specially Administered Territories.	59 147 285 20 40 3	2 9 26 2 2				

come under the influence of any systematic educational influences.

157. Education by Race.— No statistics were compiled to show the standard of literacy of the Burmes race. Its proportions would, however, coincide closely

with those of the Buddhist population: i.e., 412 per thousand for males, 60 per thousand for females, and a resultant of 233 per thousand for the two sexes combined. The Chinese are the most literate of the remaining races. Next in order come three Buddhist races, the Talaings, Arakanese and Danus. Then follow the Karens and the Shans. But for the spread of Christianity the Karens, a race of animistic antecedents, would occupy a much lower place in the scale of literacy. It is the provision of educational facilities accompanying Christian missionary effort which has induced the comparatively high proportion of literacy among them. The high proportion is specially noticeable among

		Literate per 1,000.				
		Total.	Males.	Females		
Chinese		271	331	111		
Talaing	••• ]	221	366	78		
Arakanese	•••	169	309	19		
Danu		133	230	36		
Karen	•••	126	191	62		
Shan	•••	101	181	22		
Taungthu		58	90	25		
Chin _		28	54	4		
Wa-Palaung		28	43	14		
Kachin		9	12	6		

ring.

females. It is slightly higher at 62 per thousand than the proportion of Buddhist female literacy, or than the female literacy for the whole province, at 60 and 61 per thousand respectively. The proportions among the Chins, Was, Palaungs and Kachins are naturally extremely low. It is indeed doubtful if they attain the figures recorded, it being highly probable that a lower standard of literacy was assumed among the primitive tribes and races than among those which are more advanced.

158. Education in English.—Details of the proportions of literacy in English are to be found in Subsidiary Table IV of this Chapter. Considerable progress has been made since 1901, the proportion of literacy in English for males rising from 61 to 91 per ten thousand, and that for females from 13 to 20 per ten thousand. The Deltaic Plains with the large urban centres of Rangoon and Bassein, and the Coast Ranges with the ports of Moulmein, Akyab, Tavoy and Mergui, naturally provide the highest proportions of persons educated in English. The large European and Anglo-Indian populations in these towns increase the proportions both directly and indirectly. It is not only their actual numbers,

but also the large English speaking population necessary for their business and

Educa	ation in En	glish.				
	Literates per 1,000.					
Natural Division.	Ma	les.	Females.			
	1911.	1901.	1911.	1901.		
Province Central Basin Deltaic Plains Northern Hill Districts Coast Ranges Specially Administered Territories.	91 56 160 45 71 9	61 35 104 28 59 6	20 9 42 5 18	13 5 24 4 16		

domestic requirements, which influence the statistics. Rangoon itself supplies nearly half the English-speaking population of the province, its proportions being 1,212 and 736 per ten thousand of its population for males and females respectively. Man-District, containing dalay Mandalay City and administrative centre of Maymyo, each with a large Euro-

pean and Anglo-Indian population, is the second district in the province with 2.49 per cent. of its male population and 68 per cent. of its female population able to

L	iterate	in English	n.	
		Persons.	Males.	Females.
Rangoon Rest of Province		31,5ng 36,328	<sup>25,2</sup> 33 30,570	6,276 5,758
Total	•••	67,837	55,803	12,034

speak and write Euglish. Amherst District containing the port of Moulmein is the only other district with as many as one per cent of its masculine population speaking English.

159. English Education by Religions.—It is natural that small

and select communities like the Jews and the Zoroastrians should show the high standard of literacy in English indicated by the figures in columns 13, 14

Number	per	,000 litera	te in Engl	ish.
		Total,	Males.	Females
		20 8 238 141 1,429	39 13 283 192 1,865	2 1 52 48

and 15 in Subsidiary Table I. It is also natural that the comparatively small communities, like the Hindus and Mahomedans, specialising largely in urban industries, should show much higher proportions of literacy in English than the indigenous Buddhist and Animist populations. It is the proportions of English literacy among the Christian population which needs closer

analysis. It is partly composed of members of races for whom English is the mother tongue, and partly of native Christians with whom English is an acquired

English education	of Christian	ns (Actual	figures).	
	Total pop	ulations.	Literate i	English-
Class of Christians.	Males.	Females	Males.	Females.
Europeans and allied races	16,053	8,486	15,634	7,250
and Anglo-Indians. Native Christians	94,980	90,562	5,073	2,057

language. It is necessary that the proportions of 1,841 and 932 per ten thousand for Christian males and females, respectively, should be resolved into constituent proportions for each of the two main branches of the Christian community. It is seen, as was to be expected, that practically the whole of the Euro-

peans and members of allied races and Anglo-Indians are literate in English, there being a slight margin for infants, and for non-English-speaking Europeans. Among native Christians the number of English

English education of Christia	ns (Proportion	al figures).
G. 10.1.1	English litera	tes per 10,000
Class of Christians.	Males.	Females.
Europeans and allied races and Anglo-Indians.	9,739	8,543
Native Christians	536	227

native Christians the number of English speakers form 5.36 and 2.27 per cent. of the total numbers of males and females, respectively, a much higher standard of knowledge of English than is to be found among the Buddhist, Hindu or Mahomedan communities.

160. Educational Institutions.— Subsidiary Table VII gives statistics for

the number of educational institutions in the province for the years 1891, 1901 and 1911. They indicate that in education, as in most other branches of administrative and national life, Burma is in a period of transition. Thus, while there has been a marked advance in the provision of technical and secondary schools, the number of primary schools is much less than in 1891. The decrease between

1891 and 1901 has been checked, and the ground then lost has been partly recovered. But the following extract from the Report on Public Instruction in Burma for the year 1901-11, demonstrates that even yet the primary education of the province has not been placed on a thoroughly satisfactory and progressive footing:—

"Under public primary institutions for boys there has been a marked decrease of 268 schools and 6,030 pupils. This decline is not shared by European schools; in Anglo-Vernacular Primary schools 182 pupils only have been lost, of whom 59, however, have merely passed over to the Secondary list with the rise of their schools to middle grade. Hence almost the entire decrease falls upon Vernacular schools. The Pegu, Magwe, Meiktila and Irrawaddy Divisions and the Southern Shan States all show losses of both schools and pupils, the first two having suffered the most severely. In the Eastern Circle on the other hand there has been a slight gain of pupils, so too in the Northern Circle. The Chin Hills and Mandalav show increases of both scholars and schools, the Northern Shan States a small gain of scholars, Arakan and Tenasserim losses of schools but gains in respect of pupils, Sagaing a gain of schools but decrease of scholars. The falling off, moreover, is not general, being confined to Primary schools proper. In Secondary Vernacular schools, both the Upper Primary and Lower Primary standards show increases and even in Primary schools the loss in the Upper Primary standards is slight. It is elementary vernacular education therefore that has been affected."

The decline is attributed partly to the application of the full vernacular curriculum in aided schools, though the principal cause is the reduction of grants due to financial stringency. The full curriculum could have been introduced with relatively little difficulty and without a backward movement, if it had not coincided with a reduction of financial aid.

Private institutions have increased from 5,044 in 1891 to 13,118 in 1901 and 16,499 in 1911. These figures however cannot be relied on as the Education Department has no adequate means of either collecting or verifying them. It may be assumed that roughly there are between 16,000 and 17,000 such institutions in the Province, that of these nearly 16,000 are kept by Buddhists and that of the private Buddhist schools the very large majority, i.e., over 15,900 schools, belong to the monastic order. Of the estimated total in attendance at private schools nearly 165,000 pupils or 96 per cent, are Buddhists. It is to such private institu-

tions that the supremacy of Burma in the matter of literacy is The marginal due. statement indicates that over one-third of the number of private educational institutions in India and over onefourth of their students, are to be found in must be Burma. It

	Number of i	natitutions.	Number of	Scholars.
Class of Institution.	India, 1901.	Burma,	India, 1901.	Burma, 1911.
Arts Colleges	1.41	2	16.703	278
Secondary Schools	2101	876	586,628	78,283
Primary Schools	93,133	5,448	3,157,724	177,068
School for special instruc- tion.	904	236	32,924	2,932
Private institutions	42,343	16,499	. 605,212	170,831

remembered that the education given is very elementary, lower than that given in the primary schools, and if a much higher standard than the ability to read and write a letter were adopted, large numbers of persons now entered as literates would be excluded.

161. Distribution of Educational Facilities.—Excluding the Specially Administered Territories there are in Burma 18640 village-tracts or administrative

village jurisdictions. The number of primary schools in the Specially Administered Territories is small, and the number of recorded private schools from these areas would not be great. There is on an average approximately one primary school for each 3 or 4 village-tracts, but in the greater portion of the province, even this slight provision of a most elementary standard of instruction is not to be found, the

Numbers of Schools :	I bar	/illage-tracts.
Village-Tracts Primary Schools Private Schools		18,640 5,448 16,499

primary schools being concentrated to a greater degree in the wealthy deltaic districts of the province. The distribution of the private schools amounts to not quite one per village tract. The Education Department issues a warning that the figures are only approximate, and it is obvious from the figures given in Subsidiary Table VII for 1891 and 1901 that the returns for those years are not complete. It is probable that even yet complete records have not

teen obtained, and it is legitimate to presume a provision of approximately one private school per village-tract for the province. Thus, for an extremely low standard of education, measured of course from a purely secular standpoint, there is a generous provision within the reach of every boy in the province.

162. Educational Expenditure.—The total expenditure on education in the province of Burma for the year 1910-11 was Rs. 43,62,581. But the

Kityea	itute	ca Privary E is Local Fu		cial and
Year		Actual.	Per 1	,000.
;	iear	**********	Population.	Pupils.
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1911 1971		506,938 291,452	22 28	2,855 2,283
	ļ			

amount with which the census figures are concerned, that influencing the amount of simple literacy without regard to its quality, is that portion spent on primary education. Despite financial stringency, which is officially declared to have been the chief cause in the decline in the number of primary schools for the year as compared with the previous year, it is seen that the amount spent on primary education has increased by

Rs. 2,15,530 since 1901. It now amounts to Rs. 42 per thousand of the total population, or Rs. 2,885 per thousand pupils, against the corresponding figures of Rs. 28 and Rs. 2,283 at the time of the previous census. It may seem a discouraging result for this increased expenditure that the proportion of male literacy recorded should have fallen from 378 to 376 per thousand, and that the total recorded literacy should have increased by so slight a proportion, from 215 to 221 per thousand only. The standards of literacy adopted at the enumerations of 1901 and 1911 have however differed so widely that comparisons are impossible. The reduction in the numbers of literates occurred among persons educated at monastic schools which had not attained a sufficiently high standard to be treated as primary schools. It has been seen that female literacy which is largely the resultant of primary schools, and literacy in the districts of the Deltaic Plains where primary schools are abundant, have increased despite the more stringent tests applied at the census of 1911.

163. Comparison of Census Returns with Scholars in Educational Institutions.—There should be some correspondence between the number of

the support given to local papers would be too small to pay their cost. Nor do the numbers of books published throw any light on the general spread of education. The standard of education is so low that the task of reading through a book of but moderate dimensions with a full comprehension of its contents could be performed by but a very small number of the persons classed as literate in the census records.

SUBSIDIARY TABLE I.—Education by age, sex and religion.

-				Numbe	r per mi	lle who a	re literat	te.	<i>,</i>			l li	mber le who terate Inglis	per o are e in sh.
Religion.	A	ll ages.		0~	-10.	10-	-15.	15.	-20.		ind er.			
'	Total.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male,	Female.	Male.	Female,	Male,	Female.	Total.	Male,	Female.
I	3	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	1.4	15
All Religions	221	376	61	28	II	286	74	479	109	544	75	6	9	2
Buddhist	233	413	60	28	11	-303	72	53 I	108	619	74	2	4	•••
Animist	32	59	3	2	•••	25	4	45	5	92	4	. r (	ī	•••
Hindu	195	230	53	40	•••	194	77	207	106	251	60	<b>-4</b>	ર્ફ	5
Mahomedan	178	234	77	24	11	161	84	260	119	299	172	<b>:</b> 4	19 .	5
Christian	341	421	252	76	72	398	3 <sup>2</sup> 5	511	401	<b>1</b> 8: 3	; <b>:</b>	¥3, 1	<b>5</b> 7	94
Sikh	448	502	196	46	63	536	382	415	487 3	g: :	er j	į į	52	<b>2</b> \$ '
Jain	418	450	253	214	105	875		೫ಚ	Z\$1 +	21 3	rā i	3 11	5	33
Zoroastrian	736	759	695	276	182	944	733	ăš;	iar š	<u>ئ</u> ة ئ	: છ	: :3	5 5	<b>:</b> 3
Jew	635	726	5 <sup>2</sup> 5	293	278	763	740	š	३७ ३	3 33	5 47	9 53	1 4:	<i>;</i>
Confucian	507	632	•••	1,000	•••	1,000		7.77	- <b>3</b> %	: . <b>.</b>	- 4	2 5	3 -	-

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE II.—Education by age, sex and locality.

				Num	ber per	mille wh	o are lit	erate.			
District and Natural Division.	A	ll ages.		1	10.	10-	-15.	15-	-20 <b>.</b>	20 an	d over.
	Total.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
. 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Province	221	376	61	28	11		74	479	109	544	75
Central Basin	231	433	44	25	8	297	52	547	82	656	54
Prome Thayetmyo Pakôkku Minbu Magwe Mandalay Shwebo Sagaing Lower Chindwin Kyauksè Meiktila Yamèthin Myingyan	274 256 203 237 245 277 241 227 172 218 207 225 222	493 477 378 451 470 455 429 434 362 408 408 419 432	62 42 43 32 26 99 73 40 19 38 21 32 31	23 24 16 16 24 36 33 30 15 44 31 24	4 12 4 6	286 253	55 34 25 104 78 58 24 73 23	545 567 450 492 518 516	35 77 43 57	739 725 604 693 725 618 649 644 586 562 623 640 678	70 54 51 43 35 123 94 45 23 37 26 40 38
Deltaic Plains	294	454	111	43	20	877	181	. 582	196	628	141
Rangeon Hanthawaddy Tharrawaddy Pegu Bassein Henzada Myaungmya Ma-ubin Pyapôn Thatôn Toungoo	336 296 315 277 305 275 301 361 168	439 493 508 483 444 517 433 485 554 270 369	122 100 97 98 109 129	48 57 23	25 14 22 17 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18	450 400 430 310 373 310 411 417 20 417 23	185 149 133 110 105 107 137 137 137 137 137 137 137	618 679 637 774 65 675 625 7 625 8 698 1 375	269 165 218 540 167 172 196 3 250 5 102	756 662 644 783 635 694 756	178 103 152 127 120 131 134 169
Northern Hill Districts	. 197	356	26	3 2	Б :	7 26	5 3	6 45	4 48	496	30.
Katha Ruby Mines	131	219 44 273	) IO 1 23 3 40	2 3 2 0 4	0 6 .1 2	7 11 6 14 5 34 7 20 7 35	6 2 8 2 5 7	5 18 5 29 5 56 1 31 67	6 3: 0 3: 9 8:	281 7 642 3 362	21 7 29 4 41
Coast Ranges	161	270	0 31	9 1	6	7 16	33 4	15 80	8 6	39	6 51
Northern Arakan Kyaukpyu Sandoway Salween Amherst	150 15- 194 18 18	3 6 4 29 4 34 7 4 2 28 1 31	1 2 2 2 7 4 6 6 3 6 6 14 4 4	3	15 15 1 24	4 I 6 2 1 I 8 I	20 18 09 49 95 92	23 30 18 41 9 4 77 3-	3 6 3 6 4 12 10 33 7	3 9 2 45 9 54 4 6	4 5 2 33 8 51 9 7 1 83 1 54
Specially Administered T	er- 5	0 8	94	6	4	2	85	8 1	39	9 18	
Northern Shan Sta Scuthern Shan Sta Pakokku Hill Tra Chin Hills	tes 5	7 1	90 07 	1	1	2	- 1		- T	1 1	4 8
Rangeon and Man		oS 4	79 2	80 1	100	66	340 3	21 5	52 4	13 52	328

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE III.—Education by Religion, sex and locality.

					Numbe	r per mille w	ho are literate	•	
. District and Nat	ural D	, ivísions.		Buddhi	st.	Anin	nist.	Chri	stian.
			;	Male,	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female
ı				2	3	4	5	6	7
							·		, -
Province		•••	•••	·412	co	59	3	421	25
Central Basin	•••	•••		438	42	147	g	627	39
Prome	•••			511 j	61	163	6	581	33
Thayetmyo	•••	•••	•••	505	44	80	. 4	-652	38
Pakôkku	•••	•••	•••	379	43	126	12	479	20
Minbu Magwe	•••	•••	•••	466 473	33	133	2 ! 9	614 623	3
Mandalay	•••	•••	•••	400	88	51.1	320	778	5
Shucbo	•••	•••	•••	430	71	220	74	608	20
Sagaing Lower Chindy	···	•••	•••	435	39	139	12	474	20
Kyauksè	•••	•••	•••	30I 412	19 36	185 t	29	579 \	3: 3:
Meiktila	•••	•••		411	20	174	6	487	20
Yamèthin	•••	•••	•••	430	30	195	13	311	18
Myingyan	• •	•••	•••	431	30	143	9	527	34
Deltai <b>c</b> Plains				495	106	286	26	7469	28
Rangoon				70S	382	498	112	800	63
Hanthawaddy	, <b>.</b>		•••	559	170	386	66	445	25
Tharrawaddy	•••	•••	•••	521 .	8;	347	46 (	503	26
Pegu Basseir	•••	•••	•••	537	- 1	329	23	338	21
Henzada		•••	•••	.170 526	9t   93	325   508	103 <sup>1</sup> 172 -	377   445	22
Myaungmya	•••	•••	•••	457	93 :	393	84 1	321	19
Ma-ubin	•••	•••	•••	504	107	312	114	390	18
Pyapôn Thatôn	•••	•••	•••	003 282	129	360 168	76	381 246	2:
Toungon	•••	•••	•••	433	57 58	81	5	202	1.
Northern Hill Di	stricts	·		430	30	20	2	407	18
Bhama			ł		-6	18			
Bhamo Myitkyina	•••	•••	!	301 407	36 38	17		610	13 33
Katha	•••	•••		456	23	16	1	527	19
Ruby Mines Upper Chind	win	•••	•••	31.4	44	39	14	383	1
Opper Cumu		•••	-	510	29	19	I	295	ç
Coast Ranges				336	43	40	2	327	27
Akyab				391	40	2-1		295	rı
Northern Ar		•••	•••	386	26	5	•••	333	12
Kyaukpyu Sandoway	•••	•••		323 398	26 40	0.† 10	2 4	271 385	14 21
Salween	•••	•••		396 82	3	4		271	18
Amherst	•••	•••	•••	292	55	327	82	442	43
Tavoy Mergui	•••	•••	:::	320 315	58	87	3 2	3 <sup>2</sup> 5	14
Consistly Admits	ietore	1 Ta!	torios	440	-				
Specially Admin			tories.	113	7	3		92	2
Northern Sha Southern Sha			•••	101 12	6	6		92	•••
SOUTHARD She	10 311	- O.C							2

# SUBSIDIARY TABLE IV.—English Education by age, sex and locality.

	<del></del>				Lite	crate in	English	pe <b>r</b> 10,00	00	,		
						1911.			<del></del>		19	001.
District and Natural Division.	0-1	٥٠	10 -	-15.	15-	-20.	20 an	d over.	All	ages. !	All	ages.
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
I	2	3	4	5	- G	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Province	9	7	65	28	143	34	125	8	91	20,	61	13
I. Central Basin	7	Б	32	13	77	14	88	10	56	9	35	δ
Prome Thayetmyo Pakôkku Minbu Magwe Mandalay Shwebo Sagaing Lower Chindwin Kyauksè Meiktila Yamèthin Myingyan	1 2 1 48 10 4 1 7 8 8 1 1	38 7 3  2 5 8	15 33 20 27 8 198 14 19 13 30 26 31 4	5 9 1 1  111 12 10 2 10 58 3	62 72 40 61 20 354 67 35 48 9 64 64	4 8 3 4 3 108 9 11 2 11 4 15 5	58 81 27 39 54 322 86 40 28 44 169 57 29	5 4 3 2 4 65 8 6 2 6 11 10 2	38 52 19 29 31 249 55 27 20 38 99 41	4 2 1 2 68 8 6 2 6 8 10 2	23 51 11 19 13 13 <sup>2</sup> 7 <sup>2</sup> 15 10 24 22 9	35 1 3 1 258 1 1 2 2 4 2
II. Deltaic Plains	16	11	123	60	259	49	213	52	160	42	104	24
Rangoon Hanthawaddy Tharrawaddy Pegu Bassein Henzada Myaungmya Ma-ubin Pyapôn Thatôn Toungoo	35 <sup>2</sup> 8 5 4 4 4 3 1 1	272 8 3 1  1  8	1,762 55 57 50 36 43 21 40 9 15 92	1,0So 26 17 6 18 12 8 8 1	1,729 118 135 101 122 95 51 101 49 56 218	1,068 32 9 16 37 19 11 17 8 9	1,209 121 57 80 87 59 41 51 43 55 105	791 29 8 20 18 8 7 7 7 25	1,212 88 50 59 63 46 30 41 30 35 88	736 23 8 8 16 8 6 6 4 5 25	851 42 29 34 55 50 21 28 16 15	49 2 5 6 13 4 4 5 2
III. Northern Hill Districts.	3	1	15	3	25	6	75	8.	45	Б	28	4
Bhamo Myitkyina Katha Ruby Mines Upper Chindwin	2 9 1 7 2	2 3  1 1	34 19 4 30 6	5  2 11	59 17 10 28 19	16 8 5 5	139 110 41 60 40	25 11 5 14 2	89 75 24 43 25	10 8 3 10 2	62 47 19 33 12	6 9 3 2 2
IV. Coast Ranges	8	6	66	38	184	30	94	18	71	18	59	16
Akyab Northern Arakan Kyaukpyu Sandoway Salween Amherst Tavoy Mergui	4  2  23 15 3	1 18 2 2	31  4 36  146 36 14	    5	74 9 17 87 5 256 143 78	3 2  110 3 9	64 26 36 65 32 202 68 71	8 5 2 4 60 5 14	47 17 22 46 2 159 55 47	6 3 2 2 2 6 6 4 9	45 21 41 6 102 31 60	7  3 2 2 51 3 9
V. Specially Adminis- tered Territories.	1		3	1	. Б	2	12	1	9	1	6	
Northern Shan States. Southern Shan	I	ı	3 4		6 6	I	17 15	, 2 I	10 9	1	13 3	
States. Pakôkku Hill Tracts. Chin Hills					2	9						

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE V.-Progress of Education since 1881.

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A17 to \$16	***	•10		314	313	٠.	: ;	ì	*	**	4.3	413	**	7.5	148	4,1	37	1
Medical	-		***	1 1	}*;		11	1:			:11	42.	43	15	413	514	33	1
Y. c. 160		uda 1	41.	2+1	, 4.2		2.4				1 - 1 &	181	17	; 3	4(2	\$ }2 ! \$ .	40	,
14 : 22+ <del>3</del>	.,	<b>*</b> ->	*(* <sup>3</sup>	416	. 44		<b>3</b> #	34	11		1.1	<b>;</b> `4	:3	34	£33	( د)	13	
Section Plains	•		474	<b>413</b>	£j.F	٠	1/3	**	<b>t&gt;</b> .		12:	244	154	128	£1.3	573	141	,
\$3.45.414		•-	122	¢ . E	11+	412	113	}	124	1 2 3	} ; t1	3. 5	14.1	413	150	4:3	423	*
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### SUBSIDIARY TABLE VI.-Education by Tribe or Race.

				Number per 1,000						Number per 10,000				
Tril	oc or R	acc.		Y	'ear.		Literate	•		Illiterate	•	literate in English.		
						Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female
	. 1				2	3	4	5	6	7	8	y	10	11
Arakanese	•••	•••	•••		1911	169	309	19	831	бол	981	• 34	61	5
Chin	•••	•••	•••	{	1901	28 25	5. <b>1</b> 48	+ 2	97 <b>-</b> 975	940 952	996	2	3 2	1
Chinese	·	•••	·		1911	272	321	111	729	679	889	183	230	29
Danu	•••	•••	•••		1911	133	230	36	868	770	961			
Karen	•••	•••	•••	į	1901	126 91	191	62 37	874 909	809 857	938 963	47 23	68	27
Kachin	•••	•••	•••	{	1901	9	12 14	6 2	991 992	988 986	994 998			•••
Shan		•••	•••	{	1911	101 79	181 152	9	921 921	819 848	978	2 1	3	
Talaing		•••	••• .	{	1911 1901	221	366 557	78 62	779 789	634 643	922 937	19	21 19	18
Taungthu		•••	•••	ļ	1911	. 58	90	25	942	910	975	ι	1	1
Wa Palaun	ğ	•••	•••		1911	28	43	1.1	972	957	986	•••	•••	•••

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE VII.—Number of Institutions and pupils according to the returns of the Education Department.

	191	t.	190	1.	189	1.	
Class of Institution.	Numbe	er of	Numbe	Number of Numb			
e e e en en en en en en en en en en en e	Institutions.	Scholars.	Institutions.	Scholars.	Institutions.	Scholars.	
, 1	2	3	+	5	. 6	7	
Årts Colleges	2	278	2	. 140		25	
Secondary Schools	876	78,283	329	30,000	83	9,604	
Primary Schools	5,448	177,668	4,091	127,638	5,710	118,057	
School for special In-	236	*2,932	59	1,616	25	704	
struction. Private Institutions	16,499	170,831	13,118	147,682	5,044	40,059	
Total	23,06 <b>1</b>	429,992	17,599	307,076	10,863	168,449	

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE VIII. Main results of University Examinations.

	19		190	01.	18	91.
Examination.	Candidate.	Passed.	Candidate.	Passed.	Candidate.	Passed.
·					6	7
	· 3	. 3 .	4	<u> </u>	<del>-</del>	
Matriculation (Entrance).	138	93	' 204	107	87	46
F. A. or I. A	112	56	57	23	8	5
В. А	23	13	[2	6	<b>1</b>	I

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE IX.—Number and Circulation of Newspapers, etc.

		Class of newspapers	3	1910.		1900.		1890.
	Language.	Class of newspapers (Daily, weekly, etc.)	No.	Circulation.	No.	Circulation.	No.	Circulation.
	1	2	3	4	5	б	7	3
G	rand Total		44	28,413	26	12,580	15	5,300
E	English	Total	19	11,598	15	7,950	10	3,720
	_	Daily	3	3,450	6	4,900	3	2,500
		Bi-weekly	2	400	2	1,150	2	250
		Tri-weekly	2	320	3	550	2	370
		Weekly	7	4,113	4	1,350	3	600
		Monthly	+	1,815				
		Quarterly	I	1,500	···			
	English and Burmese  Burmese	Daily Bi-weekly Weekly	2		6 2 3		ı	480  180  300
		Weekly I  Fortnightly I  Monthly I  Weekly I  Bi-weekly I	2 2			1,500 3 500 1 600 1	ten ten ten	
i	Tamil W	еекіу	500		C STATE AND AND			

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE X.—Number of Books published in each language.

English English and Bur Burmese Pali Burmese Sgau Karen Sgau Karen and Pali English, Tami Guzarati. Shan Kachin Talaing Pwo Karen Tamil Urdu Bengali Tamil and English and Shenglish and Shenglish and English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English English Eng	 mese 	  		7 3 34 82 2 5	3 5 9 47 47 3	5 5 68 45	5 7  62	6	1906. 7 8	8 6 3	9	1909.	1910. 11 23 10	Tota- 1901-10. 12 79 62	1891-00. 13	
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1		Total	•	1	34 : <sup>I</sup>	23 1	ı <b>4</b> 6	146	140	263 1	71 2	21 2	te 3	73 1,96	53 84	7 1,48

### CHAPTER IX.

### Language.

"Most of the dialects belonging to the Burma group are all but unknown, and only the classical language of the Burmese literature, as it is spoken by educated Burmans, has been

made available to philologists."—Dr. GRIERSON.

"So little information has until the last few years been available about most of the Indo-Chinese tribes, that it is not surprising that the great professors of philology have not gone very deeply into the branch of their science that includes this region. It can be asserted with confidence that nothing has been written on this subject that does not contain errors, and the present attempt will doubtless be found equally open to such criticism."—Major DAVIES.

"In the present condition of our knowledge of the Indo-Chinese peoples, practically every statement concerning them must be regarded as controversial." Sir RICHARD TEMPLE.

"On the whole, it is impossible to classify the Tibeto-Burman dialects satisfactorily. They must have split up into many different forms of speech at a very early period, and there are numerous crossings and intercrossings."—Dr. GRIERSON.

165. Language Statistics and their Reliability.—The distribution of the population of Burma according to the languages spoken is given for each administrative district and division in Imperial Table X. Subsidiary Tables I, IA, IB, II and III give different aspects of the same distribution for the province as a whole, for the five natural divisions, and afford a comparison of the numbers speaking each language in the years 1901 and 1911. As to the accuracy of the figures presented it is difficult to generalise. Existing knowledge of the divisions and subdivisions of the main groups is too limited to admit of the issue of any general instructions as to which dialects are to be entered as separate languages, and which are to be ignored and entered under a broader category. Such questions must be decided by the various grades of local census officers. But though their knowledge of the spoken language is generally intimate, the application of their knowledge is by no means uniform in principle. From district to district, and even in different portions of the same district, the methods of recording localised dialects varied. This was especially the case in the Northern Hill Districts and the Specially Administered Territories, where the numbers of tribes who claim to have an independent existence and to speak an independent language is considerable. But it is not confined to such obscure cases. A striking example can be found in the different treatment of the Arakanese and the Tavoyan languages. possess many points of similarity, and are about equally removed from Burmese in the scale of mutual intelligibility. Yet the former is invariably distinguished from Burmese; while the latter is just as invariably entered as Burmese; unless a Tavoyan, finding himself stranded in a distant district, expresses his acquired knowledge of their points of difference by having his native dialect recorded. It follows that the figures for the smaller linguistic subdivisions of the main groups may frequently be incomplete. They may represent only a portion of the persons speaking the language, the remainder being entered as speaking the group language without any specific record of any minor subdivision.

In another respect the record is incomplete. Many members of the recorded tribe live either in the areas omitted from census operations or outside the limits of the province. The numbers given as speaking any given language are simply those contained within a varying limit dictated by administrative considerations. The limits of the present enumeration differ in several instances from those adopted in 1901 and in making a comparison the change of such limits must be considered. Similarly, changes in the class of census effected enabling a classification of languages to be made, where none was attempted previously must be taken into account. This will be done when the numbers of speakers of each separate

language are under consideration.

Generally the Burma group of languages has been unaffected by any change in census limits, their range not extending beyond the census area of 1901. The Sinitic group has been affected by the inclusion of Karenni into the regular census area enabling its various Bghai dialects to be numerically classified. The records of the present census give for the first time a complete record for this language group. For the remaining groups of the Tibeto-Chinese family, the Kuki-Chin, the Kachin,

the Lolo and the Tai groups of languages, the area of the current census does not agree with the area of the census for 1901. Nor does it include the whole area where these languages are spoken. As for the Mon-Khmer languages, the area in which Talaing is spoken is identical for the two enumerations and the figures are complete for this particular language. But for the Palaung-Wa and the Miao-Yao groups, the areas for the two enumerations do not coincide, and the present census limits do not cover the areas within which these groups of languages are spoken.

166. Correspondence between Race and Language.—A close examination of the figures recorded for the members of a tribe or race and the persons speaking the tribal or racial language will reveal numerous discrepancies. sionally there is a close correspondence between the figures for the two categories. but more frequently there are wide divergencies, even cutting across such a primary phenomenon as sex, and appearing to introduce inexplicable anomalies. There are many causes for such discrepancies. Some are no doubt due to the want of uniformity in the method of record, but the majority are due to an actual want of correspondence in the facts themselves. Some enumerators inserted the local tribe as the racial designation of the individual, and the general group of language as the language spoken. Others reversed the process, generalising in the entries of race, and particularising in the entries of language. But a far more potent influence in the variations is the instability of racial and language distinctions. The province of Burma is in a stage of rapid transition in most of the phases of its national life. In its linguistic and ethnical phases, the process of change takes the form of the absorption of the smaller and less virile races by those of a larger and more strongly developed stage of existence. The Burmese, the Shans and the Kachins are strongly absorptive with respect to the remaining races. But they also act and react on each other, their relative powers of assimilation and resistance varying with the locality, the environment and the numbers brought into contact with each With such a complex distribution of races and tribes the process of transition proceeds in a highly irregular manner. Race and language do not change simultaneously, nor uniformly, nor according to any determined formulæ. Sometimes a change of racial designation precedes a change of language; but more usually the process is reversed, language being the most effective weapon of the stronger race in the competitive struggle. Even in the household or family unit, the process is at work in varied and unexpected directions. Sometimes the husband is of one race or language and the wife of another, sometimes the brothers are brought up as members of one race and the sisters as members of another, and sometimes the parents or grandparents remain as members of a primitive tribe, while their children acquire the language and assume the race of some more progressive community. These changes, though of course hastened and intensitied by intermarriage beyond racial or tribal limits, are not confined to cases where such intermarriage has been operating. The appearance of a Shan or Burmese monk and the opening of a village school may be the prelude to a transformation in race, language and religion. The exigencies of travel or business may induce a change of racial designation or language in the men of a tribe, while the women retain their primitive tribal characteristics. Or such a seemingly irrelevant consideration as the extremely privileged position held by the women of the Burmese race may be the determining factor in changing the nominal race of the women, and through them ultimately the race of the tribe.

a discussion was necessary prior to a determination of the correct principles of classification to apply; whether geographical, or genealogical, or morphological. But now that a genealogical classification has been definitely adopted, and the usage of tones and the joining of syllables abandoned as determinants, the latter relapse into their position as pertaining rather to the philological than to the statistical branch of the study of languages. The application generally of the terms "polytonic" and "isolating" to the Indo-Chinese languages requires such variations and modifications in the meaning of these determining factors, and even then is subject to such wide exceptions, that it must be studied language by language and group by group. Such an attempt in a chapter which is primarily statistical would cause an expansion beyond all legitimate limits.

168. Linguistic Survey of India.—The Linguistic Survey of India did not

169. Source of fresh Information concerning Burmese Frontier Languages.—The most important contribution to the knowledge of the languages spoken in Burma since the completion of the Linguistic Survey is to be found in the work on Yun-nan by Major H. R. Davies to which reference has been previously made. The comparative vocabularies furnished, and the information given in Appendix VIII of the Volume, supplement the work of the Linguistic Survey, and bring the date for extension of that work to include the Burmese portion of the Indian Empire appreciably nearer. While adopting generally the system of classification authorized by the Linguistic Survey, Major Davies makes one important departure from the scheme. He applies the term "Sinitic" as a suitable designation for the whole of the languages spoken in Yunnan and Western Ssu-chuan. In the authorized scheme the term "Sinitic" is limited to the Karen languages, a group of the Siamese-Chinese sub-family of the Tibeto-Chinese family of languages. It is unfortunate that the same term should be applied to a minor group of the extensive Tibeto-Chinese family, and at the same time to a geographic collection of languages belonging to both the Tibeto-Chinese and the Austro-Asiatic families. The anomaly is intensified by the fact that the Sinitic or Karen group of languages according to the Linguistic Survey does not come within the languages analysed and described by Major Davies as the Sinitic languages of Yun-nan and Ssu-chuan,

27

170. Change in group classification.—In one respect the classification suggested by Major Davies is an important advance on the tentative grouping hitherto adopted. He has changed the name of the Lisaw sub-group into the Lolo group of languages. The changes both in name and in category are justified. The inclusion of the languages concerned (Lisaw, Lahu, Akha and Ako) in a sub-group of the Burmese languages was due to the belief that they were either hybrids, the result of an intermixture of Burmese with localised tribal languages, or that they were a comparatively recent development of the Burmese language. Such a belief, and such a classification, were tentative only, and due to an imperfect knowledge of the languages concerned. It is now certain that although they undoubtedly belong to the Tibeto-Burman family, they are an independent group which have developed naturally from the original speech of the Tibeto-Burman immigrants. The grouping of Major Davies is confirmed in a paper on the Lisu (Yawyin) tribes of the Burma-China Frontier by Messrs. Archibald Rose and J. Coggin Brown, published in the fourth number of Volume III of the Memoirs of the Asiatic Society of Bengal. It is also supported by the studies in the Lahu, Akha (Kaw) and Wa languages by Reverend C. B. Antisdel published in the first Volume of the Journal of the Burma Research Society. The Reverend J. G. Geis, Mr. W. A. Hertz and Major ffrench-Mullen, all authorities on the tribes and races of the Burmese Frontier are also of the opinion that these languages, though of Tibeto-Burman origin, are not hybrids of the nature The change in name as well as of a mixture of Burmese with local vernaculars. in category is suggested by a consideration of the relative importance of the Lolo and the Lisaw tribes. The Lisaws are but a minor localised tribe inhabiting a portion of the Upper Salween valley. On the other hand, the Lolos are the most universal and widely spread tribe of western China. They form the bulk of the hill population of Yun-nan and are the most numerous of the non-Chinese tribes of that province. They extend beyond its borders into the neighbouring provinces of China and a few of them are to be found in Burma. They are undoubtedly the premier tribe of the group and their names should be given to it, in preference to the name of a relatively much smaller tribe whose location happens to be within the Burmese frontier.

171. Addition to the Classified Scheme.—In another respect owing to the appearance of two fresh languages I have followed the classification of Major Davies. He includes the Miao (Miaotzu) and the Yao languages as a group of the Mon-Khmer family. The number of words he has been able to compare are not sufficient to establish more than a primā facie case for the conclusion, but in the absence of other evidence it may be accepted until confirmed or disproved by later researches. The reasons for this classification can best be given in his own words:

"With the Miao-Yao group, however, the matter is different. Most writers have put these languages in a class by themselves and considered that they have little or no connection with the speech of their neighbours in Yun-nan. They cannot certainly be classified with the Shan, the Chinese, or the Tibeto-Burman. Their likeness to other Mon-Khmer languages is, it must be admitted, not a very close one. But I think the resemblance is enough to warrant their inclusion in this family. It must be remembered that the Miao and Yao are only quite recent immigrants into Yun-nan, and that therefore for a period which may probably be measured by thousands of years they have had no close connection with the Arakanese, the Cambodians, or the Talains. We cannot therefore expect to find the same resemblance of language between Yao and Wa that we find between Palaung and Wa, spoken as these latter are by two tribes who still live close together, and who were probably one and the same tribe when they arrived at their present locality."

were probably one and the same tribe when they arrived at their present locality."

"In the next table I have endeavoured to show the connection between Miao and Yao on the one hand and the Mon-Khmer family on the other. The list might have been made somewhat longer, but I have only put down what seemed the most striking examples. The number of words compared were about 160 in the case of Miao and only 70 in Yao. Considering therefore the small number of words available for comparison, this table may perhaps be considered enough to establish a prima facia case for the inclusion of the Miao and Yao languages in the Mon-Khmer family. It is of course possible that some of the resemblances may be accidental, but on the other hand a more extended knowledge of both the Miao-Yao group and of the Wa-Palaung group will most likely lead to the discovery of the common origin of words which do not at first sight appear to be connected. It is to a great extent grouping in the dark to compare languages of which one has no practical knowledge and of which even grammars and dictionaries are not available."

172. Existing and previous Schemes of Classification compared.— It is necessary to indicate those changes in the general scheme of classification resulting from fresh information discovered since the last Census Report was written. The actual classification adopted is given in Subsidiary Table I, at the end of this chapter. This is expanded in two further Tables IA and IB, designed to show the relative position of each language recorded, however insignificant it may be. But these tables do not show how the present classification of the indigenous languages of the province compares with that of 1901. The comparison is best seen in the diagram given below:—

	1901.			1911.	
Family.	Sub-family.	Group.	Group.	Sub-family.	Family.
	Tibeto- Burman	Burmese { Kachin Kuki-Chin	Burmese Lolo Kachin Kuki-Chin	Tibeto- Burman	Tibeto- Chinese.
Indo-Chinese	Siamese- Chinese	Tai Karen	Tai Sinitic	Siamese- Chinese	
	Mon-Annam	North- Cambodian Wa-Palaung	Talaing Palaung-Wa Miao-Yao	Mön-Khmer	Austro- Asiatic.
Malay	•••	Malay	Malay	••	Malayo- Polynesian.

The Indo-Chinese family has been broken up. Of its three sub-families, the Mon-Annam or Mon-Khmer has been associated with the Munda languages to

form the Austro-Asiatic family, the remaining two have remained together under the fresh desigof the nation Tibeto - Chinese family. These changes are both fundamental and authoritative.

Other minor and tentative changes are the separation of the Lolo from the Burmese and its group appearance independent group under a new name; and the inclusion of group, new the Miao-Yao, in the Mon-Khmer sub-family owing to the appearance of the two fresh constituent languages in the census records.

# 173. Method of Discussion. —The number of

MAP SHEWING THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE IMPORTANT NON-BURMESE LANGUAGE GROUPS.

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LUSHAI HILLS
S SHWEBO

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CHIN A

LUSHAI HILLS
S SHWEBO

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languages and dialects is so great, the knowledge of their derivation and structure is so limited, and the lines of demarcation between them are as yet so indeterminate, that there is considerable difficulty in approaching a discussion of each constituent individually. A possible method would be a separate treatment of each language or dialect followed by a grouping into their respective branches and families. Such indeed would be the only method for a philological consideration of the subject. But a philological examination of the languages of the province is impossible for the

Superintendent of Census Operations, even if the material for such an examination were available. Statistically, a contrary method, proceeding from the general to the particular, is more natural. Starting from the three families, the Tibeto-Chinese, the Austro-Asiatic and the Malayo-Polynesian, to which all the indigenous languages of the province belong, the first process of subdivision is the distinction between the Tibeto-Burman and the Siamese-Chinese sub-families of the Tibeto-Chinese family. The three categories are thereby increased to four, which in their turn are subdivided into ten groups, each containing a number of constituents, the whole numbering sixty-five indigenous languages and dialects. It is necessary to proceed along these successive stages of subdivision touching lightly on the more generalised combinations, and descending more closely into detail as the ultimate elements are approached.

No attempt will be made to discuss the non-indigenous languages spoken beyond a purely numerical comparison of the numbers using a few foreign forms

of speech with those recorded at previous enumerations.

174. Tibeto-Chinese Family.—The relations and distinctions between the two sub-families and the six groups comprising the Tibeto-Chinese family of

•	Tibeto-Chinese Langu	inges.	-	
		Number o	f speakers.	
Sub-family,	Group.	Actual.	Percentage.	
Tibeto-Burman	Kuki Chin Kachin Lolo Burma	8,850,446 296,912 170,144 65,548 8,317,842	73'06 2'45 1'40 '54 68'67	
Siamese-Chinese	Sinitic (Karen) Tai (Shan)	2,035,738 1,067,363 968,375	16'80 8'81 7'99	
Total	*****	10,886,184	89.86	

languages can best be appreciated by a reference to the brief historical synopsis at the commencement of Chapter XI of this The migrations therein volume. related explain the origin and distribution of the speakers of the vernaculars forming the various groups comprised within the family. It includes the great majority of the population of the province. The Tibeto-Burman comprises sub-family cent. and the Siamese-Chinese

sub-family 16'8 per cent. of the provincial population. Together they approximate

to 90 per cent. of the total inhabitants.

The relations existing between the Tibeto-Burman and the Siamese-Chinese sub-families of the Tibeto-Chinese languages have been considered fully in the introduction to Part I of Volume III of the Linguistic Survey of India. Not only in the vocabulary, but in general structure and also in the use of tones, an ultimate identity of origin is indicated. The reasons which have dictated the subdivision of the Tibeto-Chinese languages into two sub-families can best be given in the words of Dr. Grierson:—

"It will be seen that the Tai languages agree with Chinese in using the order, subject, verb, object. The Tibeto-Burman languages, on the other hand, arrange the words of the sentence according to a different principle, namely, subject, object, verb. They also make a much more extensive use of auxiliary words in order to connect the words of a sentence and to explain their mutual relationship. As a consequence of these important characteristics, the Tibeto-Burman languages stand out as a distinct family as compared with Tai and Chinese."

### THE TIBETO-BURMAN SUB-FAMILY.

175. Burma Group of Languages.—The Burma group of languages comprises ten constituent dialects. Together they form the speech of 8,317,842

		Number o	of speakers.		
Constituent Men	nbers.	Actual.	Per cent. of population.		
Burmese	,.,	7,883,299	65'07		
Arakanese		323,962	2.68		
Taungyo	•••	19,317	•16 j		
Intha		55,880	46		
Danu		18,694	.16		
Hpon		342	•••		
Tavoyan	•••	46			
Kadu		11,069	.10		
Chaungtha		2,515	*02		
Mro or Mru	••	2,718	'02		
Total	•••	8,317,842	68.67		

Together they form the speech of 8,317,842 persons or 68.67 per cent. of the total population of the province. Burmese, the central language of the group, overshadows the remainder in importance, providing as it does nearly 95 per cent. of its members. The remaining nine dialects are spoken by tribes on the outskirts of the Burmese portion of the province. Some of them are developments of the more primitive forms of Burmese speech, evolving on different lines in different environments. Isolated from the parent stock and subjected to outside influences, they differ in a greater or less degree from the main language

while retaining its principal and distinctive characteristics. Others, like Danu and

Kadu, are hybrid tongues evolved by the admixture of neighbouring tribes with the Burmese, and presenting almost insuperable difficulties of classification. A

geographical division would place Hpon and the Kadu dialects to the north; the Arakanese and its derivatives, the and Chaungtha the Mru, to the west; the Tavoyan to the south and the Danu, Intha and Taungyo dialects to the east of the main body. Αpart from Burmese, only Arakanese can claim numerical significance, the dialect, Intha coming next in the number of its speakers, claiming less than one half per cent. of the total provincial population.

The increase in the population using the forms of speech comprised within the Burmese group Map shewing distribution of the Minor Languages of the Burma Group. LUSHAL RUBY NORTHERN MIHES SHWEBO SHAN STATES HILLS LOWER CHINDAIN SOUTHERN MYINGYAN SHAN STATES PROME RENGAL SIAM Arakanese. Taungyo. PEGU lidiii I Hilli I Intha. Mill Danu. THATON Нроп. Tavoyan. ANHERST Kadu. Chaungtha. Mro or Mru.

has been considerable, amounting to 880,479 or 11.83 per cent. since 1901. It is a genuine increase, not being affected by any increase in census limits or by the

extension of the classification of languages to regions where previously only a bare enumeration of the population was attempted. The expan-

	tott.	igoi.	Increase.		
	1911.	1901.	Actual.	Per cent.	
Strength of racial group Number of speakers	7,986,,327 8,317,842	7,094,167, 7,437,363	892,160 88 <i>0</i> ,479	12.24	

sion of the language has not been so rapid as the corresponding racial expansion of 12.57 per cent., but the linguistic limits of the group still remain much wider than its purely racial limits. This divergence between the number of speakers of the Burmese group of languages and the number of members of Burmese tribes is a sure indication of the process of assimilation continuously proceeding. The race expands and absorbs the members of other races principally through the medium of language. The non-Burmese users of forms of speech belonging to the Burma group are potential additions to the Burmese race.

176. Burmese.—The main language of the Burma group is of course Burmese. It is the language of 7,883,299 persons or of 65 per cent. of the total population of

the province. The number of persons using Burmese as a form of speech is still very largely in advance of the number of persons of Burmese race, though the number of non-

•	tou	Igui. Igui.		Increase.		
_	, , ,		Actual.	Per cent.		
Strength of race Number speaking racial language.	7,479,433 7,883,299	6,508,682 7,006,495	970,751 876,804	14.01 15.21		

Burmese speakers of the language is not so great as in 1901. Still the excess

(403,866) is remarkable. It is an indication of the absorptive power of the race, for the extension of the language is the first step in the incorporation of the members of the surrounding races into the main central stock. The expansion in numbers (876,804) or 12.51 per cent. during the decade is perhaps not altogether legitimate. It represents an increasing tendency to suppress the record of local dialects and enter them under the designation of the parent tongue. But this tendency is really an acknowledgment of the prestige of the dominant language. It indicates the removal of traditional barriers and the initiation of a slow but gradual process of assimilation.

177. Arakanese.—After Burmese, Arakanese is the principal dialect of the Burmese group. It affords an illustration of the effect produced by physical

			Decrease.		
	1911.	1901.	Actual.	Per cent.	
Strength of race Number speaking racial language.	344,123 323,962	405,143 383,400	61,020 59,438	15.20	

obstacles and lack of facilities of communication, in producing differences in languages of cognate origin. The existence of the Arakan Yomas has caused considerable differences in the development

of the languages spoken within the valley of the Irrawaddy and on the shores of the Bay of Bengal. Phonetically, Arakanese approximates much more closely to the written language than Burmese, and it is probable that it represents an earlier stage in the development of Burmese. There is a large decline in the number of persons recorded as speaking Arakanese. It is doubtful how far this is a genuine decrease caused by the spread of the Burmese language, and how far it is a nominal decrease due to the cause which leads a Tavoyan to record his language as Both of these influences have probably had their effect. Burmese is making headway both in prestige and in actual fact. Mr. Lowis recorded the opinion, despite an increase in the figures he was reviewing, that Arakanese is bound eventually to disappear and that after another decennial census or two, it will probably be possible to calculate fairly accurately the date by which it will have vanished off the face of A decrease of 15.5 per cent. is a perceptible step in this direction. still more significant indication of the gradual decay of the language is the fact that the number using it as a form of speech is less than the number of the Arakanese A progressive language goes in advance of the race by which it is spoken. A language which cannot count in the number of its speakers the full total of the corresponding race is in a stage of retrogression.

178. Taungyo.—The literature of Burmese ethnography contains several examples of the confusion resulting from drawing superficial deductions from

	1911.	1901,	Increase.		
	.9		Actual.	Per cent.	
Strength of tribe Number speaking tribal language.	19,656	16,749 10,543	2,9 )7 8,774	17.35 83.55	

similarity in racial or tribal designations. The confusion is doubled when similarity of name is combined with proximity of location. The Danus and the Danaws afford an instance of the

confusion resulting from the application of superficial knowledge and points of resem-A parallel instance is that of the Taungyos and the Taungthus. tribes are treated together in the Gazetteer of Upper Burma and the Shan States, and though points of difference are indicated, their conjoint treatment obscures the fundamental character of their distinction between them. The Taungyos are as essentially Burmese, as the Taungthus are essentially Karen, in their origin. The Taungyos are a Burmese tribe located in the west of the Southern Shan States, isolated from contact with the main branch of the Burmese racial group. Taungyo speech is so markedly Burmese, and shews such resemblances to the primitive Burmese found in the Arakanese forms of speech that it could not have been formed by an amalgamation of Burmese with an earlier dialect. Moreover the opportunities of amalgamation have been wanting as the Taungyos are surrounded by peoples of a non-Burmese origin. Whatever difficulties may be presented in classifying some of the dialects in the Burmese group, there are none in connection with Taungyo. The tribe must have been one of the Tibeto-Burman tribes which extended eastwards from the Irrawaddy valley on to the Shan plateau at a comparatively early date. Though isolated from the remainder of the Burmese race,

its members were sufficiently numerous and virile to preserve their language and their independent existence. Their numbers are increasing though it is probable that the increase in the numbers speaking the tribal language is not so great as the figures would indicate.

179. Intha.—Another Burmese tribe which has separated from the main race and found a habitation in the Shan States is the Intha. Tradition asserts that its progenitors came originally from Tavoy, and their speech certainly resembles the archaic form of Burmese which has been preserved in the Arakanese and Tavoyan

dialects. But the same peculiarity is observed in the speech of the Taungyos, and may only indicate the remote period of separation from the main stock in the Irrawaddy valley. It is difficult to reconcile the remarkable discrepancies in the numbers recorded as

		1901.	Increase.	
	1911.		Actual,	Per cent.
Strength of tribe Number speaking tribal language.	52,685 55,880	50,478 5,851	2,207 50,029	4°37 855.°05

speaking the Intha dialect in 1901 and 1911. I have also some hesitation in accepting the figures shewing that the number speaking the tribal language is greater than the strength of the tribe. But throughout the western Shan States Burmese is asserting its supremacy and is slowly supplanting Shan as the vernacular of the people. It is therefore possible that the Intha variant of the Burmese speech is participating in this forward movement and progressing in advance of the numbers of the tribe itself.

180. Danu.—In the census report for 1901, Mr. Lowis initiated the separation of the Danus and Danaws as distinct tribes. The Danus are a hybrid Shan-Burmese compound inhabiting the borderland between the Shan States and Upper Burma. The Danaws are a Shan-Palaung compound inhabiting the north-western

portion of the Southern Shan States. The similarity of their names and the proximity of their respective locations are sufficient to account for the confusion that has arisen, and that even now is not entirely dispelled. The figures relating to the strength of the

	1911.	1901.	Increase.	
			Actual,	Per cent.
Strength of tribe Number speaking tribal language.	70,947 18,694	63,549 Nil.	7,398 18,694	11.64

Danu tribe and to the numbers speaking the Danu language appear to defy explanation. In 1901, no persons were returned as speaking Danu, and Mr. Lowis stated that the members of the tribe seem to have lost their speech. However, in 1911, 18,694 persons were recorded as speaking Danu. The confusion can best be explained by the suggestion that in 1901 the records for the Danu and Danaw languages were amalgamated and entered as Danaw. This is supported by the

statement in the margin compiled from the census records of 1901. It will be seen that, while there were 63,549 Danus, there were no persons speaking the Danu language. On the other hand, while there were only 635 Danaws, there were 18,994 persons speaking the Danaw language. Mr. Lowis in referring to the Danaws in

Census 1901	Danu.	- Danaw.
Strength of tribe Number speaking tribal language.	63,549 Nil.	635 18,994

persons speaking the Danaw language.
Mr. Lowis in referring to the Danaws in
Volume No. 4 of the Burma Ethnographical Series explains that they form an almost extinct community, and it is highly improbable that a tribe approaching extinction should be able to muster 18,994 persons speaking its tribal language. Even now it is a matter of extreme difficulty to separate the entries for the two races in the census records. Great care has been taken as the possibilities of confusion were anticipated. The marked discrepancy between the strength of the tribe (70,947) and the number speaking the tribal language (18,694) is an indication of the extent to which the tribe is being absorbed by its Burmese and Shan neighbours, especially the former. Sir George Scott doubts whether there ever was a distinct Danu race or language, and considers that the present speech is simply a Doric from of Burmese with a small admixture of foreign words.

181. Hpon.—For the first time the Hpons have made an impression on the census records. They form a small tribe located on the Irrawaddy in the vicinity of the upper defile in the Myitkyina District. Linguistically their importance is quite disproportionate to their numbers. It is probable that they originated in one of the

**************************************	1911.	1901.
Strength of tribe Number speaking tribal language.	378 342	Nil. Nil.

later waves of the Tibeto-Burman invasion, which spent its force before it emerged into the central basin of the Irrawaddy Valley. Unable to complete their migration, and amalgamate with the cognate tribes which preceded them, their progress was arrested by the incursions of Shan tribes. Arriving from the east the Shans appeared

on their flank and intervened between them and their southern objective. For many generations they have been surrounded by Shans, and the characteristics suggesting identity of origin with the Burmese race have been almost completely submerged. A close and intimate study of the Hpon language would solve numerous interesting problems concerning the origin and early migrations of the Tibeto-Burmese. A commencement has already been made by Major Davies in his work on Yun-nan, and he has arrived at the following conclusion:—

"An interesting fact in connection with the Tibeto-Burman languages is the very close connection that exists between the speech of the Ma-rus, Zis, La-shis A-ch'angs and P'ons on the one hand and the Burmese on the other. This is not the general likeness that the languages of the Lo-los and other Tibeto-Burman tribes have to Burmese, but is sufficiently close to warrant the belief that at some not very distant period these races spoke one language."

So important are the issues involved, and so rapidly are the original characteristics of the tribe and the language disappearing, that an immediate and thorough examination of the structure of the language and the legends and traditions of the people would be of great practical value in determining issues of a wide and farreaching nature.

182. Tavoyan.—The Tavoyan language is the result of the admixture of the speech of Arakanese colonists with that of the Siamese inhabitants whom they found established on the coast of Tavoy. It is remarkable that, although the Tavoyan dialect is as different as Arakanese from the ordinary Burmese language,

	1911.	1901.
Strength of race Number speaking racial language.	523 46	948 5

it is never separately recorded in the district in which it is spoken. The 46 persons entered as speaking Tavoyan were absent from their district, and the marked difference of their speech from that of the surrounding Burmans must have suggested the distinctive entry. The numbers given are of course no indication whatever

of the number of persons using the Tavoyan form of speech. It is spoken by the majority of the inhabitants of the Tavoy District. It is a curious fact demonstrating the localised nature of the dialect, that to the south of Tavoy where it is scarcely intelligible to the ordinary Burman, there is a portion of Mergui District where almost pure Burmese is spoken.

183. Kadu.—The Kadu language is a hybrid of such doubtful ancestry that it is difficult to assign it definitely to any group in the classified scheme of languages. It contains traces of Chin, Kachin, Shan and Burmese in its composition. Mr. Houghton is of the opinion that it bears a close resemblance to the language

	A STATE OF PART OF MALE PRINTED	1		Decr	rase.
	-	1)11.	typt.	Actual.	Per cent.
,	See year Esteller No when you should so had bould heaps.	11,1% 11,063	34,643 10,704	41.433 · 5,431	6765 316)

of the Saks or the Thets, an obscure Chin tribe in Arakan. This linguistic evidence is supported by the claim of a portion of the Kadu tribes to be considered to be the remnants of the Chins. On the other hand Mr. Lowis considers that the Chin element in

their composition is very faint and that they are a Shan-Burmese compound, with 42 approximate afterne of Kachin besides a trace of Chin. The situation of their

habitat in the Katha and Upper Chindwin Districts has exposed them to linguistic influences from each of the four races mentioned. Unless a careful study is made of a language which is rapidly disappearing it is probable that the predominant element in its composition will never be determined. At present all that can be said is that it is probably the result of an amalgamation of two distinct stocks. The first is a Chin dialect with an admixture of a few Kachin elements. This was spoken by the primitive inhabitants who dwelt on the slopes of the Maing Thon mountain. The second stock is a language of the Burma group introduced by refugees from the country of Maha Myaing, one of the numerous independent tribes of the period of the early Burmese colonisation of the Irrawaddy valley. On the incorporation of Maha Myaing into the central kingdom, or more probably on its destruction by the Shans, the refugees took to the hills and coalesced with the wild tribes of Chin origin in the vicinity. On the hybrid race resulting, the pressure of the Kachin invasion from the north, and the occupation of the whole of the Northern Hill districts by the Shans, had their linguistic effects. The inclusion of the Kadu dialect in the Burma group is tentative only, until the fundamental structure of the language can be definitely determined. An interesting suggestion that the Kadus were one of the original Burmese tribes has been made by Mr. Grant-Brown in the Gazetteer of the Upper Chindwin District. The following quotation is of considerable

"The people who now talk the Kadu language live mostly in the Katha district, and those in the Upper Chindwin dwell along the border of Katha and come little into contact with the district officials. From what little is known of their language it appears to be, like the Taman, cognate to Burmese. There are traditions of their presence in the south of the district, and, as already stated, the Kadus or Kantus are mentioned in the Yazagyo chronicle as one of the peoples formerly living in the Kale valley or its neighbourhood. If this is correct there is no particular reason for supposing that they have died out there. They doubtless adopted the Burmese language and customs and call themselves Burmans. This process has occurred in the last two generations among the people who formerly spoke Ingye, which, though the Ingyes are mentioned in the yazawin as a separate race, appears to be merely a dialect of Kadu, and is still spoken by two aged women of Teintha and Obo, on the riverbank just above Kindat. These women say that in their childhood most of the people of these villages spoke Ingye. Ingye was also, two generations ago, the language of Ahlaw, Patha and Maw in the Kabaw valley, and of Minya on the Chindwin above Paungbyin: while Yuwa, Tatkôn, Ingôn, Wayontha and other villages are said to have once spoken it. These Ingyes appear to be the only people in the district who have no tradition of having migrated from elsewhere, and there is every reason to suppose that the language was in wide it not general use before the advent of the Shan. It is not unlikely that there was a Kadu domination just as there was afterwards a Shan and a Burman domination; and that the Kadu was the language of one of the tribes which came into Burma long ago and eventually formed what is now the Burmese people."

It is not to be expected that a language of such doubtful antecedents should show progress in a hostile environment. At the census of 1901 the rapid extinction of the Kadu vernacular was to be foretold by the significant fact that less than half the people belonging to the tribe were entered as speaking the tribal dialect. The most powerful medium in the absorption of a weak race by its neighbours is that of language. A change of language usually precedes a change of race, and once the process is commenced, it operates with accelerated rapidity with each generation. Only 11,069 speakers of Kadu are left as compared with 16,300 in 1901, a decrease of 32 per cent. The prediction of Mr. Lowis that it will very shortly be an obsolete form of speech is approaching realization.

184. Chaungtha.—In the census report for 1901, Mr. Lowis suggested that the Chaungtha were originally a hill tribe speaking one of the suggest of the hill

tracts, but that since they began to descend to the plains and came into contact with the Arakanese they have lost practically all their original vernacular. Subsequently in the volume devoted to the tribes of

	1732 Yuk		I=		
			.1===1	Per seri	
Strength of tribe Number speaking tribal language.		7,343 7,357	i,ist	878 837	

Burma, Mr. Lowis considers that it is cruiting whether the Changes Arakanese who have amalgamated with the Change burs, or a which has adopted the dress, religion and spends of the Arakanese, is, however, strongly of that opinion, and this is supported by the trace. Chaungthas themselves, that the true is purely tractions and purely changes and purely the trace is the contraction of the contraction.

origin. Certainly the language, both spoken and written, gives no support to the theory of a Chin origin. The written characters are modified forms of the Burmese alphabet and the vernacular spoken is a corrupted form of Arakanese. Any traces of Chin elements in the dialect are to be explained by propinquity rather than by descent. They are superficial rather than fundamental, and there need be no hesitation in assigning the Chaungtha dialect to the Burmese group of languages. There has been a large comparative increase in the number speaking the language since 1901. It is probable that the numbers now recorded approximate closely to the actual numbers using this form of speech. There is however but a vague and indefinite line of demarcation between Arakanese and Chaungtha and variations in their respective numbers may be due to difficulties in determining under which category some of the marginal members should be entered.

### 185. Mro or Mru.—Of this dialect, Dr. Grierson writes:—

"Mru, a dialect spoken in the Chittagong Hill Tracts, in several points agrees with Burmese, and it has therefore been classed as belonging to the Burma group. The materials

		Decrease.		
	1911.	1901.	Actual.	Per cent,
Strength of tribe Number speaking tribal language.	2,708 2,718	12,622 13,414	9,914 10,696	78·54 79·73

which are available for this dialect are, however, so unsatisfactory that its classificacation can only be provisional. It is based on facts which will be mentioned later on."

"Mru is by no means merely a Burmese dialect and differs from this latter lan-

guage in essential points. We sometimes find parallel forms and words in other groups such as the Bodo, the Naga, and, more especially, the Kuki-Chin languages. The pronoun ang, I, for instance, is found again in the Bodo languages, and en, thou, may be compared with Angami na, thou; un, thy, etc. The suffix of the relative participle is mi in Mru, as in the Lai dialect of Chin, and so on."

"The vocabulary is, to a great extent, independent. Many words are found again in the Kuki-Chin languages, especially in Khami. The negative participle doiseems to correspond to Meithei da, etc. But many common words, such as 'belly', 'ear', 'hand', 'mouth', 'horse', 'cow', etc., must be quite differently translated in Mru and in the Kuki-Chin forms of speech. We sometimes find forms with an old appearance reminding one of Tibetan. Thus, Kin, house, Tibetan, Khyim; Kui, dog, Tibetan khyi, Singpho gui, Burmese khwe. The greatest part of the vocabulary, however, is apparently independent or corresponding words are found now in one and now in another group of connected languages."

"Under such circumstances the classing of Mru can only be provisional until we get new

"Under such circumstances the classing of Mru can only be provisional until we get new and better materials. We have found it to agree with Burmese in important points, while also other languages, such as Naga, Bodo and Kuki-Chin languages, sometimes have parallel

forms and words."

It would be unsafe to take the relative numbers of the speakers of the tribal language as recorded in 1901 and 1911 to be an exact representation of the rate of disintegration and decay of the language. The word Mru is used by the Arakanese in a loose sense as a generic term for all the hill tribes of their country. It is highly probable that the numbers recorded fluctuate to a certain extent with the exact meaning applied to the word. The number according to the present census corresponds very closely with the estimate made by Sir Arthur Phayre who considered that the Mru tribe in Arakan amounted to about 2,800 souls. It is probable that the number of the tribe in Burma is diminishing rather as a result of migration into Chittagong than owing to absorption by surrounding tribes. Its members have been forced westwards from the Arakan Yomas and the Kaladan valley by the pressure of the Kamis. They now occupy the hills on the border between Arakan and Chittagong, and it is probable that the westward movement may result in an increase of the number of persons speaking Mru in Chittagong, simultaneously with a decrease in the corresponding numbers in Burma.

186. Yaw.—The nominal extinction of Yaw as a separate dialect may now be considered as completely accomplished. Like the Tavoyan, it exists as a matter of

-	1911.	1501.
Strength of tribe Number speaking tribal language.	96 Nil	18 5

Like the Tavoyan, it exists as a matter of hard fact. The entry of persons speaking the Yaw dialect as using the Burmese form of speech does not eliminate the differences that undoubtedly exist between the two. But it is a sure indication that the differences are being modified, and that in course of time Yaw will become but a local method of speaking

Burmese. The figures recorded bear no relation to the number of Yaws living in

the valley of the Yaw in the Pakôkku District and speaking the Yaw dialect, but they are eloquent as indicating the degree to which the process of absorption by the dominant race is being effected.

187. The Kuki-Chin Group of Languages.—The following extracts from Dr. Grierson's introduction to the languages of the Kuki-Chin group are essential to a correct understanding of the position of the group in the scheme of classification:—

"The territory inhabited by the Kuki-Chin tribes extends from the Naga Hills in the north down into the Sandoway District of Burma in the south; from the Myitha river in the east, almost to the Bay of Bengal in the west. It is almost entirely filled up by hills and

mountain ridges, separated by deep valleys."

"The denomination Kuki-Chin is a purely conventional one, there being no proper name comprising all these tribes. Meithei-Chin would be a better appellation, as the whole group can be subdivided into two sub-groups, the Meitheis and the various tribes which are known to us under the names of Kuki and Chin. I have, however, to avoid confusion,

retained the old terminology.

"The word Kuki is, more especially, used to denote the various tribes which have successively been driven from the Lushai and Chin Hills into the surrounding country to the north and west. The tribes which first emigrated from Lushai land into Cachar, the Rangkhols and Betes with their offshoots, are generally distinguished as old Kuki; while it has become customary to use the term new Kuki to denote the Thados, Jangshens, and their offshoots. These latter tribes had driven the so-called old Kukis out of Lushai land,

and were afterwards themselves driven out by the Lushais.

"The terms old Kuki and New Kuki are apt to convey the idea that the tribes so denoted are closely related to each other. But that is not the case. Not only do their customs and institutions differ considerably, but their languages are separated by a large group of dialects in the Lushai and Chin Hills. The so-called New Kukis are, so far as we can see, a Chin tribe, most closely related to the inhabitants of the Northern Chin Hills, while the Old Kukis are related to tribes more to the south. I have therefore abandoned the use of the title New Kuki, but have retained the name Old Kuki for want of a better word to denote a language which we know in many dialects, such as Rangkhol, Bete, Aimol, Hallam and others.

"Chin is a Burmese word used to denote the various hill tribes living in the country between Burma and the provinces of Assam and Bengal. It is written and dialectically pronounced Khyang. The name is not used by the tribes themselves, who use titles such

as Zo or Yo and Sho.

"The history of the Kuki-Chin tribes is only known from comparatively modern times. With the exception of the Meitheis, who have been settled in the Manipur valley for more than a thousand years, all the Kuki-Chin tribes appear to have lived in a nomadic state for some centuries. It would seem that they all settled in the Lushai and Chin Hills some time during the last two centuries, and this country may be considered as the place where their languages have developed their chief characteristics.

languages have developed their chief characteristics.

"The Kuki-Chin languages belong to the Burmese branch of the Tibeto-Burman family.

A comparison of the Kuki-Chin numerals with those occurring in Burmese and Tibetan will

show this.

"The comparison of the numerals shows that the Kuki-Chin languages are closer akin to spoken than to written Burmese. This also proves to be the case in other respects. Thus we find the same law prevailing in spoken Burmese and in Meithei, according to which initial hard and soft consonants are interchanged in such a way that the soft consonants are used after prefixed words ending in vowels and nasals, and the hard ones after consonants

"Our information with regard to tones in the Kuki-Chin languages is very deserve. Sho is said to possess three tones—the short accute, the heavy grave, and the rising traes; two tones, the light and heavy one, are mentioned in Khami; and the abrupt shorting of a syllable in Lushai seems to indicate the existence of the short abrupt in the language. The description of the tones of Burmese, which latter have not, however, as the been adequately described; but so far as our information goes, the tones seem to be the same in

Burmese with the Bodo and Naga languages, having, especially in the north, many relations with the Kachin dialects, which, in their turn, form another chain between Tibetan and

"The Kuki-Chin languages must be subdivided in two branches, Meithei and the Kuki-

Chin languages proper."

I. Meithei. II. The Kuki-Chin Languages Proper.

"All the other dialects of the group in question (i. e. the non-Meithei dialects of the Kuki-Chin Group) are evidently derived from one form of speech, which might be styled the Old Chin language, its home being probably the Chin and Lushai Hills. The dialects derived from this original language can be divided into the following sub-groups:—

- (i) Northern Chin.
- (ii) Central Chin.
- (iii) Old Kuki.
- (iv) Southern Chin

188. Extended, though still incomplete, record of the Chin language.--The record of the Chin tribes in the past has suffered greatly from

			Increase,	
	1911.	1501.	Actual.	Per cent.
Strength of race Number speaking racial languages.	306,486 295,283	214,607 209,495	91,879 85,788	42.81 40.02

the remote and inaccessible localities in which they live. In the regularly administered districts they occupy the extreme hilly borders where administrative control is scarcely felt. In the specially administered terri-

tories the degree of control exercised is but slight, and at the time of the census of 1901 administration had been but recently established. It was indeed a matter of grave consideration whether a census enumeration would be possible outside the limits of the regular districts. Gradually, as administrative control has strengthened the possibilities of a more accurate and comprehensive enumeration have been enhanced. The increase in the number of persons using Chin forms of speech is therefore due partly to an extension of census possibilities. The extension of language classification to the Pakokku Hill Tracts is responsible for an increase of 26,051 Chin-speaking persons out of a total increase of 85,788. Large tracts in the administrative area of the Chin Hills which were necessarily only superficially touched in 1901 have now been closely enumerated. In the regularly administered districts improved records have been possible with increased control. But even yet, no complete statement of the Chin population within the province of Burma can be made. Included nominally within the district of Northern Arakan is an area of 3,723 square miles which remains unadministered and over which no census or estimate has been attempted. Until this area is brought within administrative control, and a census thereby rendered possible, the record of the numbers of the Chinspeaking pouplation must remain incomplete.

states that the Chin language, like all purely colloquial languages, is constantly changing, and that no two villages and even two Chins pronounce the same word

exactly alike. The wide gulf existing between theoretical classification of the Chin dialects and their records in the census schedules is indicated by Mr. Lowis in paragraph 121 of the Census Report of 1901, where after describing the various dialects of the Northern and Central Chins, he states that such forms of speech were not separately returned at the 1901 Census, but that they had been lumped together under the general head of Chin. This record of dialects of great diversity under a common generic term has been continued at the census of 1911. Indeed it has taken place on a much larger scale. Out of a total of 295,283 users of the Chin forms of speech 233, 661 persons

K	uki-C	hin Languages	Prop	er.
Sub-group.		Dialect.		Number of speakers.
Old Kuki Northern Chin Central Chin Southern Chin		Kyaw (Chesiyin Baungshe Chin Chinbôk Chinbôn Yindu Taungtha That Anu Khami Daingnet M'hang	aw)	249 151 1,924 233,661 18,179 1,600 4,348 17,244 80 474 16,431 919 23
		Total	•••	295,283

were returned simply as speakers of Chin. The twelve dialects appearing in the census records must necessarily be but a fraction of the total number, while the number of speakers of each separate dialect is in most cases much greater than those recorded. It is not a matter for surprise that with dialects inadequately classified, many of them unstudied, varying from individual to individual and from village to village by almost imperceptible shades into a stage of mutual intelligibility, local officers should avoid the difficulties of linguistic classification by a purely general What was required before the enumeration commenced was a comprehensive list of the dialects sufficiently distinctive to necessitate a distinctive record in the The basis for such a list exists in the scheme of Dr. Grierson on census records. pages 2 and 3 of Volume III, Part III, of the Linguistic Survey of India. But this scheme was prepared for a survey from which Burma was excluded, and the lists of dialects of Chin spoken in Burma are tentative and incomplete. The fact that the Linguistic Survey did not extend to Burma has prevented the distribution of the volumes containing the results of its labours to local officers in the province, who have been unaware of the extent to which in the course of the survey of the languages spoken in India, those spoken in Burma had been examined and classified. Consequently the assistance they would have gained from its conclusions, however tentative they may be, was wanting.

190. Combination of Language and Tribal Figures.—It is possible by combining the figures for Imperial Tables X and XIII, that is, by supplementing

the deficiencies of linguistic classification by assuming that the tribal language is spoken by the members of the tribe as recorded in the columns for caste, tribe or race, to obtain a closer classification of the Chin languages than is possible from the language records alone. By this method the number of persons speaking unspecified Chin is reduced from 233,661 to 124,299, and the percentage speaking classified dialects is increased from 21 per cent. to 57 per cent. of the whole. The number of persons speaking the

Chin Languages.			
	From language records only.	From combined language and racial records.	
Classed Unclassed	61,622 233,661	170,984 124,299	
Total	295,283	295,283	

tribal language may not coincide with the number of the tribe, and consequently absolute accuracy cannot be claimed for this method of combination of the results of two distinct classes of returns. But the degree of accuracy is far greater than that obtained by trusting to the language records only. By confining the analysis to the latter, no estimate of the number of persons using the forms of speech belonging to the recognized groups of Chin dialects can be obtained. By the method of combination of tribal and linguistic returns, an exceedingly close approximation can be made to the number of speakers of the northern and central groups of Chin dialects, and the speakers of the unclassified forms of speech can with comparatively few exceptions be entered as belonging to the southern group. In the following analysis, the figures for language will consequently be supplemented by the figures for the tribe wherever the former are defective. The scheme of classification outlined by Dr. Grierson will be adopted. Where no linguistic comparisons of the

"We have been in the habit of calling these people the Baungshes, but it is a term unknown to them. They call themselves, as stated above, the Lais. Baungshe is a Burmese term, applied by the Burmese to these hill-men in reference to the way in which they wear their hair done up in a knot on the front of their heads."

194. Unclassed Chin and dialects of the Southern Group.—In his classification of the languages of the Kuki-Chin group, Dr. Grierson places Chin

under the designation of Khyang or Sho, as belonging to the southern group. There is no doubt that the great majority of the 124,299 persons speaking unclassed Chin do belong to the southern group, but a small proportion are speakers of the dialects of the northern and central The majority of these unspecified Chins have been recorded in the borderland between the Arakan division on the west and the Magwe and Pegu administrative divisions on the east. Mr. Houghton terms the southern Chins, to be found in the borders of the regular districts of the province, tame Chins, to distinguish them from the wild Chins to be found in the Specially Administered Territories. The tame Chins are tribes which for-

Dialect.	Number of speakers.
Chin Chinbôk Chinbôn Yindu Khami Anu That Taungtha Daingnet M'hang	 124,299 18,179 1,600 4,348 16,431 474 80 17,244 919 23
Tctal	 183,597

merly inhabited the Lushai Hills and the country now forming the administrative territories of the Chin Hills and the Pakôkku Hill Tracts, and which have been slowly forced southwards at no very distant period by pressure from the less civilized Chins to the north. The Chinbôk, Chinbôn and Yindu dialects have been recorded

entirely in the Pakokku Hill Tracts. But little is known of the vocabulary and structure of the two latter. The strength of the Khami, Kwemi or Kami tribe and the numbers speaking its tribal language show a marked decrease. This is however only nominal, there being a strong

Khami Dialect.	1911.	1901.
Strength of tribe Number speaking tribal language.	16,372 16,431	<sup>24,937</sup> <sub>24,389</sub>

tendency among them to claim to be pure Chins, and to give their race and language as Chin. In the Akyab district this tendency is particularly marked, only 2,786 having been recorded as compared with 11,195 at the census of 1901. further south the tribe is found the less do its members maintain their distinctive dress and dialect. The Anus are an obscure tribe in Northern Arakan whose dialect has not been studied sufficiently to enable

a more definite statement to be made than that it probably belongs to the Southern Chin group. The figures suggest that the tribe as a separate entity is disappearing, but it is possible that many of its members may be existing within unadministered territory. all but disappeared. The main interest in the language is historical, the Sak being one of the main tribes which once fought for supremacy in the Irrawaddy valley. They were driven into the hills after their defeat by the Talaings. It is highly questionable whether the present remnant has any connection with their more famous namesakes. Nor has it been

Anu Dialect.	1911.	1901.
Strength of tribe Number speaking tribal language.	479 474	588 7 <b>7</b> 5

The Thet or That or Sak dialect has

Thet or That.	1911.	1901.
Strength of tribe Number speaking tribal language.	79 80	<sup>2</sup> 32 67

finally determined whether the basis of their dialect is Chin or Naga or Kachin. The very large increase in the number of Taungthas recorded over the figures for 1901 is due to a very loose application of the term to various tribes. In the Pakôkku District it is used to denote a tribe of Chin antecedents who have retained

their Chin language but have intermarried among the Burmese and adopted Buddhism as their religion. On the Arakan side of the hills it is applied much more loosely, including several Chin tribes who have adopted the name as their distinguishing designation. The present figures include both classes of Taungthas. To what extent they are related and

Taungtha.	1911.	1901.
Strength of tribe Number speaking tribal language.	17,462 17,244	5,704 4,578

can be included in one linguistic category is a question not at present determined.

An illustration of the gradual extension of the census enumeration is the inclusion for

M'hang.		1911.
Strength of tribe Number speaking language,	tribal	23 23

the first time of 23 individuals of the M'hang tribe in the census records: They are a branch of the Lemro Chins and live to the east of the Northern Arakan District, principally within the unadministered territory. In all probability the dialect is one of the Southern Chin sub-group.

195. Daingnet.—The Daingnet tribe say that they originally lived near the Kantha Chaung in the Chittagong district and that they migrated into Arakan over 50 years ago. The dialect is probably of Tibeto-Burman origin. In the census report of 1901 Mr. Lowis, from an examination of some specimens of the language supplied by the Deputy Commissioner of Akyab, came to the conclusion that it must be excluded from the Indo-Chinese family altogether. Mr. Page, Assistant Commissioner of Buthidaung, has written a short note to the effect that the Daingnets have a distinct language of their own belonging to the Tibeto-Chinese family. The following quotation indicates how he arrived at this conclusion:—

"A study of the list of words and phrases appended will show that there are a larger number of words which bear no resemblance whatever to Arakanese or Chittagonian. Moreover, these distinctly Daingnet words are still tonal in character thus showing the original language to be of Mongolian origin.

"My principal informant was an educated Daingnet who could read and write Burmese and he was very insistent upon the point that the word for a pot which I have transliterated as kum could not be represented by the Burmese. Though he could not express the difference in words it was quite clear that his difficulty lay in not being able to represent the tone of the word in his language by a Burmese equivalent.

"The conclusion to which my enquiries seem to lead is that the Daingnets have a distinct language of their own belonging to the Tibeto-Chinese family, but that it has been largely modified especially in the words for common objects by the substitution of Chittagonian and, in a lesser degree, of Arakanese words."

The large decrease in numbers since 1901 indicates that both the tribe and the dialect are being submerged.

196. Kachin-Burma Hybrids.—A group of hybrid dialects spoken in the extreme north of the province and tentatively classed as Kachin-Burma hybrids

Number of sp	eakers of	Kachin-	Burma Hybr	id Dialects.
	_		1911.	1901.
Szi (Tsi)			205	756
Lashi	•••	••• ]		8.4
Maru	•••	]	209	151
Maingtha	•••	•••	316	465
Total	•••		730	1,456

is, linguistically and ethnographically, of far greater importance than their insignificant numbers would suggest. Although the extension of census limits has brought, a much larger number of the members of the corresponding tribes into the range of observation, the number of speakers of the tribal dialects shew a marked decrease. It is only possible to speak with certainty of those portions of the tribes within the

administrative area of the province, but judging from the results it is clear that the dialects are rapidly being submerged. The necessity for a complete study of their vocabularies and structure before they are finally lost is seen from the following opinion of Major Davies as to the origin of the Burmese race:—

Kachin-Burma Hybrids.	1911.	1901.
Strength of tribes Number speaking tribal dialects.	10,167 730	1,255 1,456

"This fact may I think throw some light on the disputed point as to how the Burmese reached their present country. For beginning with the P'ons who live on the Irrawaddy just north of Bhamo we have a regular line of Zis, Ma-rus, and La-shis leading up to the eastern branch of the Irrawaddy. Above

the confluence, the eastern branch is in fact almost entirely inhabited for a considerable distance by Ma-rus and La-shis, while on the western branch these tribes do not, I believe, exist. The inference is that the Burmese came down the eastern branch of the Irrawaddy and that these tribes are stragglers left behind in the southerly migration of the main body of the race."

A sketch map showing the distribution of the tribes of this group will be found in the margin of paragraph 292 of Chapter XI of this volume.

197. Maru.—The Maru tribe is the second link in the chain connecting the

Burmese race with their original habitat, the first link being the Hpons located a little lower down in the valley of the Irrawaddy. The great majority of the

members of the tribe live outside the administered area of province. They extend northwards from the confluence of the two branches of the Irrawaddy along the valley of the eastern branch. Their original migra-

Maru.	1911.	1901.
Strength of tribe Number speaking tribal language.	3,855 209	149

tion southwards was impeded by the Shan invasion from the east, and subsequently they have been subjected to pressure from the Kachins on the west. effect of contact with these stronger and more virile races has been to transform their racial characteristics and largely to submerge their original language. Of the numbers recording themselves as members of this tribe only a trifling proportion gave Maru as the language spoken, the majority speaking Kachin. Even now, in dress and customs the Marus are hardly distinguishable from the Kachins, and it is but a question of time until all traces of the original language are obliterated. The Marus may be termed the parent tribe of this group, the Lashis, Szis and Maingthas being tribes of similar origin and speaking similar dialects, which have developed differently under different conditions.

further stage even than that of Maru. Despite an increase of nearly 3,000 members, included in the census records owing to the extension of the census area of the province, not a single person using Lashi as a form of speech was entered. Their absorption by the surrounding Kachins seems to be almost. complete. Their situation to the west of

198. Lashi. The disintegration of the Lashi dialect has proceeded to a

Number encolsing tribal	,908 40 84

the Marus has rendered them particularly liable to Kachin influence, to which they have readily succumbed. It is possible that the tribal language may be spoken in the upper regions of the eastern branch of the Irrawaddy beyond the administrative frontier, but so far as the area covered by the census enumeration was concerned the dialect may be considered to be extinct.

199. Szi (Tsi).—The Szi are a tribe similar to the Marus and the Lashis, but whose amalgamation with the Lepai tribe of the Kachins is recognized.

the amalgamation the tribal dialect has not quite disappeared but it is spoken by a very small proportion of the members of the tribe that came within the area of the census enumeration. The tribe extends eastwards into Chinese territory and northwards beyond the administrative frontier of Burma.

Szi.	1911.	1901.
Strength of tribe Number speaking tribal language.	3,003 205	317 756
1 1 1-1-	1 : 3 1	

200. Maingtha.—The entry of the Maingtha dialect into the group of Kachin-Burma hybrid languages is highly questionable. Its basis is undoubtedly Burmese, but the element of Shan in its

composition is greater than that of The exact position of the tribe Kachin. and dialect in any scheme of classification Mr. Lowis is of the opinion that the Maingtha are a tribe of Chinese

designation, the A-chang, writes :-

	1911.	1901.
Strength of tribe Number speaking tribal language,	401 316	749 465

Shans. On the contrary, Major Davies, who describes them under their own

"To such an extent have the A-ch'angs adopted the dress, customs, and Buddhism of the Shans, though on closer questioning they will admit that they really belong to a distinct race. In feature they differ considerably from the Shans, and their language is totally distinct from Shan and very closely connected with the Zi, La shi, and Ma-ru languages. There are many of the Zi tribe living not far off in the hills, and it seems probable that the A-ch'angs may really be Zis who have settled in a valley and taken to more civilized ways. That they are not Shans seems certain. The chiefs of both Ho-hsa and La-sha were agreed on this point."

In the absence of a thorough linguistic survey of the frontier languages any classification of such doubtful dialects must be considered as tentative. The close affinity of the Maingtha form of speech with that of the Szi, Lashi and Maru dialects, and the probability of an intimate connection with Szi tribe, suggests that they should be grouped together until a more authoritative classification is prescribed. The headquarters of the tribe is a small valley on the Taiping river on the Chinese side of the frontier.

201. The Lolo Group.—The Lolo group of languages is identical with the Lisaw sub-group of the census of 1901. The extension of census limits on the

	1911.	1901.
Strength of tribes Number speaking tribal dialects.	67,418 65,548	47,618 47,250

The extension of census limits on the northern and north-eastern borders of the province has introduced a new dialect, Lolo, into the group, and has caused a considerable increase in the number of speakers of the Lisu or Lisaw speech. The dialects are so similar in their

structure and vocabularies that it is probable that they are developments of some Lolo tongue that was once spoken throughout the hill regions of Yun-nan. Their affinities with Burmese are sufficient to indicate that in their origin they were closely

Dialects of the Lolo Group.		Number of speakers.
Lisu (Lisaw) Lahu (Muhso) Kwi (Lahu Hsi) Akha (Kaw) Ako Lolo (Myen)	•••	9,066 18,500 3,924 32,925 794 339
Total		65,548

allied. Yet they are sufficiently distinct to be excluded from the Burmese group. Nor can they be considered hybrid Burmese dialects. They are most probably the resultant of the most eastern branch of the Tibeto-Burmese invasion, which diverged into Yun-nan by the valleys of the Salween and the Mekong instead of continuing towards the valley of the Irrawaddy. In the mountain ranges of Yun-nan the immigrants developed into a numerous and widely spread tribe with a distinctive language of their own. On their fringe, contact with other tribes and races produced modifications, of which the

dialects now under consideration are the most important. They are spoken along the entire length of north-eastern border of the province from Myitkyina to Karenni. A sketch map of their distribution is given in the margin to paragraph 295 of Chapter XI of this volume.

202. Lisu.—Lisu, Lisaw or Lihsaw is the language of a widely scattered tribe having its headquarters in the Salween valley to the east of the Bhamo and

Lisu.	1911.	1901.
Strength of tribe Number speaking tribal language.	8,487 9,066	1,427 1,605

Myitkyina districts. It is probable that at one time its members formed a large tribe extending between the Irrawaddy and Mekong valleys as far south as the Shweli River. They have, however, largely succumbed to Chinese influence,

intermarrying with the Chinese and adopting the Chinese language and speech very readily. The area over which they retain their own customs and language is most restricted. The large increase in the numbers recorded as using the Lisu form of speech is due to the extension of the limits of census enumeration to areas where previously only an estimate had been possible.

203. Lahu.—The Lahu or Muhso tribe is a branch of the main stream of the

Lahu.	1911.	1901.
Strength of tribe Number speaking tribal language.	13,103 18,500	15,77.4 16,732

Lolo migration which advanced southwards by the Mekong valley, while the Lisus were proceeding down the valley of the Salween. Their lines of divergence began somewhere to the north of the border between China and the Northern

Shan States. They are an aggressive race and have extended southwards much beyond the southern limit of the Lisus, penetrating through the Wa country into the Shan State of Kengtung. Their dialect though distinctly Lolo in structure bears traces of Wa influence, and it must have been considerably modified in the course of a lengthy period of residence in the locality occupied by the Was.

20.4.	Kwi.—The	Kwis (	or	Lahu-H
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	Strengtis of true	ariy k	83:
•	Number speaking tribal in language	ا المراق	•••

si) are the most southern branch of the Lahu tribe. Their dialect, a modified form of Lahu, has now appeared for the first time in the census returns, though their race was entered in 1901 for 2,882 persons.

205. Akha.—The Akha dialect is spoken by the Akhas or Kaws, a tribe inhabiting the eastern portion of Kengtung, but also extending into the adjacent French

Lao States and into southern Yun-nan. Despite intermarriage with the Chinese to a remarkable extent, they manage to preserve their language and to increase the number of its speakers. They form by far the largest tribe within Burmese administered territory speaking a Lolo dialect.

Akha.	1911.	1901.
Strength of tribe Number speaking tribal language:	33,181 32,925	26,029 27,751

206. Ako.—The Akö or Akho dialect is a hybrid spoken by a tribe of the same name. The tribe is probably the resultant of an intermixture of members of

the Akha tribe with immigrants from China. The small number recorded as speaking the tribal language is largely due to a gradual assimilation with the Chinese. According to their traditions they originally came from China and spoke Chinese

Ako,	1911.	1901.
Strength of tribe Number speaking tribal language.	4,119 794	1,506 1,162

and there is a tendency to revert to the original language. While the number of the members of the tribe is increasing by immigration from Southern Yun-nan the dialect is decaying, being gradually supplanted by Chinese and to a less extent by the Akha dialect of the parent tribe.

207. Lolo.—The extension of the census limits to include portions of the Northern Shan States not hitherto brought within the scope of the enumeration,

has brought a few members of the Lolo tribe into the census statistics. The tribe extends over the whole of the hill ranges of Yun-nan, a small number only having crossed the frontier into Burma. Major Davies is of the opinion that the language will die out in a few generations, owing to the spread of

Lolo,	1911.
Strength of tribe Number speaking tribal language.	339 339

Chinese influence. The men of the tribe adopt the dress and language of the Chinese, the women usually retaining their tribal characteristics. On the whole, though large numbers of the tribe still adhere to their language and customs the process of absorption is rapidly proceeding.

208. Kachin.—No attempt has been made to classify the Kachin language into its three main dialects, the northern, the Kaori, and southern Kachin.

Where any attempt at distinction of dialect was attempted, the number of artificial and arbitrary divisions became so great that the attempt had to be abandoned. As to the general position of Kachin in the scheme of linguistic classification Dr. Grierson writes:—

Kachin,	1911.	1901.
Strength of race Number speaking tribal language.	162,368 109,414	64,405 55,570

"The Kachin dialects have many points of resemblance with the Kuki-Chin languages, especially Meithei, and with the Naga and Bodo languages. Thus the numerals and personal pronouns correspond to forms tound in those dialects."

"Similar forms occur in many other languages of the groups in question. With regard to the vocabulary there are many points of correspondence. Mr. Gait, in the Assam Census Report, compared 22 common Singpho words with the corresponding words in other Tibeto-Assamese languages, and found that half of them were identical with the forms occurring in some of the dialects compared. A greater number of words have been compared in the introduction to the Kuki-Chin group, with the same result. There are, however, so many points of difference that the Kachin dialects must be considered as quite independent forms of speech."

"A comparison of the grammatical features of Kachin and other Tibeto-Burman languages shows the same relation. The general tendencies and the whole structure is identical in all. We even find the same prefixes and suffixes used in Kachin and in other

Tibeto-Burman dialects."

"But there are also many points of difference. More especially, Kachin has developed a copious system of verbal suffixes, which is more akin to Burmese than to the dialects mentioned above. It also agrees with Burmese in the use of the prefix a to form nouns and adjectives, though the same prefix is perhaps also used in the Naga and Kuki languages. It is of importance that Kachin uses a prefixed negative in the Burmese way. Ao, Lhota, and Tamlu, however, have the same principle for the formation of the negative verb."

"In one essential point, Kachin differs from Burmese and from the neighbouring dialects in the west. The Kachin system of tones is quite peculiar to itself. The best description of the Kachin tones is given by the Reverend O. Hanson. He mentions five, while the Reverend J. N Cushing knows of six. He describes them as follows:—

"The first tone is the natural pitch of the voice, with a slight rising inflection at the end. It may be called the natural tone."

"The second is a bass tone; it may be called the grave tone."

"The third is a slightly higher tone than the second, being pronounced with an even prolonged sound; it may be called the rising tone."

"The fourth tone is very short and abrupt; it may be called the abrupt tone."

"The fifth tone is somewhat higher than the third and is uttered with more emphasis; it may be called the emphatic tone".

"This richness in tones shows that Kachin is more closely connected with Tibetan, and that it must be classed as a link between that language in the north, the Naga and Kuki-Chin languages in the west, and Burmese in the south."

The extremely large increase in the numbers recorded as speaking Kachin is chiefly due to the extension of census limits and to the introduction of linguistic records where none were previously attempted. The estimated areas of the Myitkyina District in the census of 1901 have disappeared, and an enumeration has been effected, thereby enabling a linguistic record where none was possible previously. Again, the Kachin districts of North Hsenwi in the Northern Shan States have been for the first time brought under a regular census enumeration. But, simultaneously with the expansion of census limits northward, there is a decided movement of the Kachins southwards from unadministered into administered territory and from the Chinese side to the British side of the border. Moreover there is a strong tendency for the Kachins to absorb minor tribes such as those of the group of Kachin-Burma hybrids, and even isolated communities of Chins, Shans and Burmans. to estimate the respective strengths of the threefold factors of the progress made, extension of census limits northwards, migration of Kachins southwards into administered territory, and absorption of the members of neighbouring tribes. Indeed the figures themselves must not be considered as possessing a high degree of accuracy. They have been recorded under great difficulties, over areas where administrative control is of the slightest, where efficient enumerators are scarce and supervision difficult, and where the northern limit of the area of enumeration is formed by the irrelevant line which for the time being formed the administrative boundary.

#### THE SIAMESE-CHINESE SUB-FAMILY.

209. The Tai Language Group.—There is no doubt that there has been in the past a considerable amount of over-classification in the dialects belonging to the Tai or Shan language group. Local and immaterial differences have been magnified into essential and fundamental distinctions. Elaborate geographical classifications for the purpose of grouping the most widely spread language of the Indo-Chinese peninsular have been attempted, and after several modifications have been finally abandoned. External differences of designation and superficial differences of tone or accent have been regarded as determining factors in the absence of conclusions based on the study of their internal structure. In the census report of 1901, Mr. Lowis after a careful consideration of the material available came to the conclusion that it was best to sink the difference between the northern and southern Burmese Shans and to speak of all the Tai forms of speech occurring in Burma and the Shan States to the west of the Salween (except Chinese-Shan and Khamti) as Burmese Shan. There is no doubt that the Salween is the only true line of demarcation between the various forms of speech belonging to the Tai group. Considering only those possessing a separate written character, the Tai dialects of Assam, Khamti, Chinese Shan and Burmese Shan are spoken to the west of the Salween, and Lu, Hkun, Lao and Siamese to the east of that river. Hkun are practically two branches of the same form of speech, the eight divisions are reduced to seven. But for the fact that the tones of the same word in these seven dialects or languages do not correspond, the members of any of these eight groups might be able with little dishculty to make themselves intelligible to each of the others. There is thus a remarkable linguistic uniformity throughout the wide area over which the Tai dialects are spoken. Apart from the important distinctions to be noted east and west of the Salween, all other differences are of a minor character,

210. Comparative Figures for the Tai Languages.—The comparison of the figures for 1911 and 1901 is disturbed by the extension of census limits to include

Kokang and West Manglun and also by the linguistic classification of the inhabitants of the Districts of North The latter extension Hsenwi. has but a slight influence on the

	1911.	1901.	Increase.
Strength of Tai races Number' speaking Tai languages.	996,420 968,375	893,428 844,306	102,992 124,069

total figures, while the former is responsible for an increase of 16,274 both in the strength of the Tai races and in the number speaking the Tai language. ing for this disturbance the racial increase has been about 9 per cent. for the decade. The larger increase among the users of Tai forms of speech may be attributed to The Tai Loi or Hill Shans have now been returned under their several causes. correct tribal designation, and many of them though speaking Shan belong to the Wa tribe. They would thus tend to increase the number of Shan speakers to a much greater degree than they would increase the strength of the Shan race. Moreover the Shans though themselves in danger of being absorbed when they come in contact with such virile races as the Chinese, the Kachins and the Burmese are themselves absorptive with respect to the minor tribes of the Lolo group and such hybrid tribes as the Danus, Danaws and the Maingthas. Despite the greater increase both absolutely and proportionately in the number of speakers of Tai languages, they still number 28,045 less than the total strength of the Tai race.

211. Analysis of the Tai Languages recorded.—The record of the languages of the Tai group has not proceeded on the lines of the seven recognized Two of these divisions, the Tai dialects of Assam and the Lao main divisions.

language of the French States, have no representatives in Burma. Of the remaining five, Khamti, Burmese Shan and Chinese Shan have been returned as Shan without any further distinctive record. Lu and Hkun have been separately, though the distinction between them is largely nominal. Siamese has been separately recorded in one district only, that of Mergui, where the large indigenous Siamese population has forced a recognition of their separate existence. In the remaining districts of the Tenasserim Division, the Siamese are locally known as Shans in both the Siamese

Linguistic Division.	Dialect.	Number of speakers.
Cis-Salween	Total Shan Daye	897,803 897,578 225
Trans-Salween	Total Lu Hkun Siamese	70,572 13,262 48,408 8,902
GRAND T	OTAL WY	306,375

and Burmese vernaculars, and they have been so recorded. An insignational number of speakers of Daye, a hybrid dialect, has also been returned. The resultant figures do not therefore accurately represent any logical or linguistic classification. The number of Shan speakers has been unduly increased by the Khamtis of the Upper Chindwin District, the Chinese Shans of the north-eastern portion of the province, and a very large proportion of the Siamese resident in Burma.

Daye is the language of a Shan tribe found in the western portion of the Southern Shan States. In 1901 they numbered they persons but their

language did not enter into the Census Records. The figures for the current census show that they are being absorbed by the surrounding Shan races. Opinions as to their origin are varied. They are probably a Shan-Chinese hybrid,

2574	3202	73,024
Strength Market Numbersychalog a kind	201	Taige Stark
militaries.	·	

though it is possible that they may be a mile address that the land Chindwin District. It is probable that they will have the probable that they will have the probable that they will have the probable that they will have the probable that they will have the probable that they will have the probable that they will have the probable that they will have the probable that they will have the probable that they will have the probable that they will have the probable that they will have the probable that they will have the probable that they will have the probable that they will have the probable that they will have the probable that they will have the probable that they will have the probable that they will have the probable that they will have the probable that they will have the probable that they will have the probable that they will have the probable that they will have the probable that they will have the probable that they will have the probable that they will have the probable that they will have the probable that they will have the probable that they will have the probable that they will have the probable that they will have the probable they will have the probable they will have the probable the probable they will have the probable they will have the probable they will have the probable they will have the probable they will have the probable they will have the probable they will have the probable they will have the probable they will have the probable they will have the probable they will have the probable the probable they will have the probable they will have the probable they will have the probable they will have the probable they will have the probable they will have the probable they will have the probable they will have the probable they will have the probable they will have the probable they will have the probable the probable they will have the probable they will have the probable they will have the probable they will have the probable they will have the probable they will have the probable they will have the probable they will have the probable they will have the pr the next census enumeration.

212. Hkun and Lu.—The relative figures retailed for the persons asis these forms of speech are an indication of the minute nature of the distinctive between them. From a comparison of the numbers of the tribal members and the numbers of persons using these hours at speech it is obvious that a large grapher tion of the Lus have given Him as that

3 - 70 mg	·21	~ ~
	 177. 174.	

form of speech. The two dialects are very closely allied. They both have the same characters, and both have the same points of divergence from the Lao

Lu.	1911.	1901.
Strength of tribe Number speaking tribal language.	17;331 13,262	16,227 19,380

dialect of Chiengmai. Hkun the more extended and virile of the two dialects is expending at the expense of the relatively unimportant Lu dialect. Both dialects are spoken in the trans-Salween portion of Kengtung, the largest and

most easterly of the Southern Shan States.

213. The Sinitic or Karen Languages.—The various dialects of Karen are spoken along the whole of the eastern frontier of Burma Proper from Yamèthin

Dialect.		Number of speakers.		Percentage of
Dialect.	•	1911.	1901.	Provincial Population,
Karen (Sgav Pwo).	w and	850,756	704,835	7'02
Taungthu		168,326	160,136	1,39
Karenni		21,203	1,303	1,8
Karennet	•••	728		•••
Karenbyu		777	•••	ot
Zayein		4,892	4,666	*04
Sinsin		899	***	• • •
Brè		6,918	669	*06
Mano		2,182	***	*Ü2
Yinbaw		2,166	•••	.03
Padaung	• •••	8,516	9,321	·ó7
To	tal	1,067,363	881,290	8.81

to Mergui. They expand east-wards into Karenni and the more western of the Southern Shan States, and westwards over the whole of the rural portions of the delta of the Irrawaddy. The inclusion of the languages of Karenni in the figures for the current census has given for the first time a complete record of the persons using the Karen forms of speech. It is to this extension of census classification that the inclusion of the Karennet, Karenbyu, Sinsin, Manu,

Yinbaw, and the large increases in

the Karenni and Brè dialects are to be attributed. The increases in the numbers of Sgaw, Pwo, and Taungthu Karens are natural, but the figures for all the remaining

Karen.		1911.	1901.
Strength of races	•••	1,102,695	903,361
Number of speakers		1,067,363	881,290

dialects are influenced by the inclusion of an area where previously no record of language was attempted.

In the absence of a thoroughly conducted linguistic survey, and of any

complete examination of the various languages of this group by philologists, it would be unwise to attempt any internal classification of the dialects recorded. Such an attempt would be merely provisional and might obscure rather than assist a final determination of the relations subsisting between them. Mr. Eales is of the opinion that the Sinitic languages have suffered in the past from over-classification. It is obvious that any attempts based on superficial resemblances or analogies are to be deprecated. While a considerable amount of study and research has been given to individual dialects of the group, no complete comparative analysis of the group as a whole has been attempted.

214. Sgau and Pwo Karen.—The Karen language as spoken in the deltaic plains of the province has two dialects, Sgau and Pwo. It is impossible owing to the numbers of entries of unspecified Karens to give the respective numbers of persons using each form of speech. Owing very largely to

Sgau and Pwo Karen.	1911-	i901.
Strength of tribes	8 <b>72,</b> 825	717,859
Number of speakers	850, <b>7</b> 56	704,835

missionary influence, these dialects are more than holding their own, and show no tendency whatever to succumb to the Burmese influence which surrounds them. The increase in numbers is a genuine advance, not being due to any change in

The rate of increase is greater than that for the population of the census area. province as a whole, or than that of the speakers of Burmese, or of the Burmese group of languages. There is a tendency for the Pwo dialect to give place to Sgau but the figures recorded do not enable the strength of this tendency to be measured. The wide diffusion of these two dialects through an extensive area may be compared with the extremely localised distribution of the Bghai dialects of the same group. The comparison affords an illustration of the general principle that ease and facility of communication tend to widespread integration of race and language, whereas the difficulty of communications in hilly regions tend to localisation and disruption.

215. Taungthu.—The Taungthu dialect of the Karen language is spoken along the eastern border land of Burma proper between the deltaic plains on the

one hand and the Shan States on the other. It has affinities with the Pwo branch of Karen and is probably a development of Pwo under the influence of other linguistic elements. Like the main branches of the language it shows

	1911.	1901.
Strength of tribe Number speaking tribal language.	183,054 168,326	168,30 <b>1</b> 160,436

signs of genuine increase and is in no danger at present of absorption. Its progress is steady, and though not proportionate to the progress made by Sgau and Pwo dialects it is sufficient to dispel all apprehensions of disintegration.

216. Bghai Dialects.—Of the eight representatives of the Bghai dialects or the Northern Karen sub-group, five are presented for the first time in the census

records. Karennet, Karenbyu, Sinsin, Manu and Yinbaw are spoken in Karenni, a group of Karen States included for the purpose of administration with the Southern Shan States. In 1901, its population was estimated and no record of languages attempted. Consequently the speakers of these dialects were not included in the census returns. The great majority of the persons speaking Karenni and Brè live within this area,

Bghai Dialects.		Number of speakers		
	alects.		1911.	1901.
Karenni			21,203	1,363
Karennet	***	•••	728	•••
Karenbyu	•••	•••	777	•••
Zayein	•••		4,892	4,666
Sinsin	•••	}	899	•••
Brè	•••	•••	6,918	66 <b>9</b>
Manu	•••		2,182	•••
Yinbaw	•••	•••	2,166	***
Padaung	•••	•••	8,516	9,321

and their true numbers are for the first time revealed in the figures now presented. Zayein and Padaung are spoken in several of the Shan States proper and were not therefore excluded from the records of 1901. Until a careful philological survey of these dialects has been concluded and their respective elements analysed it is impossible to speak with certainty as to their correct classification. Provisionally they can be considered as the natural variations of the Bghai dialect induced partly by the highly diversified surface of the region in which it is spoken and partly by contact with other races by whom its speakers are surrounded.

#### AUSTRO-ASIATIC FAMILY.

217. Austro-Asiatic Family.—For the genesis of the term "Austro-Asiatic" in its linguistic connotation, reference must be made to the original monograph by Pater Schmidt commencing on page 187 of the Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society for 1907, in which it was first applied to systematise a long established series of affinities between a number of widely scattered languages in Southern Asia. The Munda languages of Central India, the scattered Mon-Khmer languages of Burma and Assam, the Nancowry language of the Nicobars, and the aboriginal languages of Malacca, have points of resemblance which have been recognized for many years. But it remained for Schmidt to complete the suggestions contained in the volumes of the Linguistic survey and piece together many of its conclusions into a more systematic form. The decree of divorce in the Dravido-Munda family pronounced in Volume IV of the Survey was final, and succeeded in effecting the separation between the two partners of an ill-assorted union. This was followed in due course by the announcement that the affinity between the Mon-Khmer and the Munda languages was such that a closer union was highly desirable. They are now associated together under the new term "Austro-Asiatic." The work of Pater Schmidt in promoting the new

grouping, and in including the two partners into a new and wider family termed the "Austric" is characterised by Dr. Grierson as the most important discovery in philology in the last ten years.

No direct representatives of the Munda forms of speech now remain in Burma. They survive principally as an influence having a potent effect on the moulding of the Mon-Khmer languages and especially Talaing into the forms they finally assumed. Although it is highly probable that the Mon-Khmer languages

Population using Mon-Khmer forms of speech.		
Languages.	Number of speakers.	
Talaing Palaung-Wa group Miao-Yao grcup	179,443 165,757 920	
Total	346,120	

were at one time spoken throughout the whole of further India, the population of

Burma using these forms of speech is now but an insignificant portion of the whole. Only 346,120 persons, or approximately 28 per cent. of the total population are speakers of these languages and there is a tendency for the speakers of the principal language of the group, the Talaing, to discard their language for Burmese.

218. Mon-Khmer Languages.—There remain only three small groups of languages in Burma to represent what was at one period an almost universal form

	Mon-Kh	mer lar	ıguages.	<del></del>
Grou	р.		1911.	1901.
Talaing Palaung-Wa Miao-Yao	•••		179,443 165,757 920	154,483 82,272 Nil.
	Total	•••	346,120	236,755

of speech over the entire province. The invasions of the Tibeto-Burman and the Siamese-Chinese languages have succeeded in circumscribing and isolating the Mon-Khmer languages into two localities. One, near the sea-coast on both sides of the mouth of the Salween River, is the limited area where the Talaing language is struggling almost desparingly for its existence against the all-absorbing and surrounding Burmese

tongue. The other, on the north-eastern border of the province, contains a number of primitive tribes, dispersed over a wide stretch of mountainous country, whose dialects have been classed into two linguistic groups. The figures for the Talaing language are unaffected by census changes, but those of the Palaung-Wa group are modified to a great degree by the extension of the census enumeration to the regions of Kokang and West Manglun. The introduction of the Miao-Yao group into the Burmese scheme of languages is also to be attributed partly to the same extension. Despite the expansion of the census area the figures for the Palaung-Wa and the Miao-Yao groups are not a complete summary of the persons using their dialects. East Manglun has still to be brought within the scope of census operations and the majority of its inhabitants would belong to these groups. Moreover, only a small fringe of the persons speaking the Miao-Yao dialects live within the province, the great majority dwelling beyond the frontier.

219. Talaing.—The Talaing language is the form of speech assumed by the Mon invaders of Burma influenced by the Munda inhabitants they found in possession of the lower portion of the Irrawaddy valley. Originally spoken over

Talaing.	1911.	1901.
Strength of race Number speaking racial language.	320,629 179,443	321,898 154,483

an extremely wide area covering practically the whole of the natural division designated the deltaic plains and a large portion of Tenasserim, it is now spoken principally in the Amherst and Thatôn Districts. Upon the conquest of Pegu by Alaungpaya in 1757 the Burmese strongly discouraged the use of the Talaing

language, but it was not till the evacuation of Pegu by the British in 1826 that the Its teaching in the Buddhist monasteries or language was absolutely proscribed. other schools was then prohibited and in the interval between 1826 and the re-occupation of Pegu by the British in 1852 the language practically became extinct in Burmese territory. It was kept alive by those members of the race who migrated to Tenasserim and remained under British rule until they were able to return to their The great interest in the figures now presented is the evidence original homes. they give to the effect that the gradual decay and disintegration of the language has for a time ceased. Instead of a progressive decrease, there is a remarkable increase of 24,960 persons using the Talaing form of speech. This increase is to be found principally in those portions of the province which reverted to Burmese rule from 1826 to 1852. The districts now falling within the area where the language was so relentlessly proscribed contribute 19,248 Talaing-speaking persons towards the total increase. The numbers of the Talaing race have not progressed proportionately. Indeed they show a slight decrease for the ten years elapsing since the enumeration of 1901. But the remarkable vitality shown by the language is a demonstration that the absorption of the Talaing race by the Burmese and the disappearance of the Talaing language are neither so immediate nor so inevitable as has been generally assumed.

220. The Palaung-Wa Group.—The comparative figures for the various dialects of the Palaung-Wa group would appear to defy explanation. There

appears to be no degree of correspondence between the figures for 1901 and 1911. They indicate in fact the extremely immature state of our knowledge, both

statistical and philological, of the languages of the North-Eastern frontier of the province. The elimination of the Danaw dialect entirely from the figures is due to the discovery that the Danu and the Danaw dialects are distinct rather than allied forms of speech. The former is a Shan-Burmese hybrid and the latter a Shan-Palaung combination, which is practically extinct. Mr. Lowis foreshadowed the distinction in his census report for 1901, though the discovery was too late to enable the figures for the

	***	1911.	1901.
Danaw- Yin (Riang Wa En Pyin	 ) 	 144,248  5,004 12,548 3,684 273	51,121 18,994 4,490 7,667 
Total, Pal	aung-Wa	165,757	42,347

two dialects at that census to be separated. In the present census considerable care has been given to the distinction, with the result that no records of Danaw speech have been found. The difficulties have however been extremely great. The localities in which the two tribes live are in close proximity and their records have been made by Shan and Burmese enumerators by whom the distinction was in many The Danaws have been recorded as using Shan and Palaung forms cases ignored. Other apparent anomalies in the comparison between 1901 and 1911 of speech. are due to the inclusion of the Kokang and West Manglun areas for the first time within census limits and the classification of the languages of the Kachin districts of North Hsenwi for the first time. Moreover the administrative control exercised over the region where these languages are spoken is of the slightest, the people are almost entirely illiterate, alien enumerators have to be imported, and the possibilities of effective supervision are but small.

Considering all these circumstances, the resulting lack of correspondence between the figures for 1901 and 1911 is explainable. The figures for 1911 are not to be taken as an accurate or complete statement of the persons using the

dialects mentioned. East Manglun is still outside census limits and the administrative frontier of Burma does not correspond with the limits within which the dialects are spoken.

The marginal statement gives a comparison of the numbers recorded as belonging to the tribes of this group and

	Tribe.		Number of niembers.	Number speaking tribal language.
Palaung	•••	•••	144,139	144,248
Danaw			I,724	•••
Yin (Ria	ng)	•••	7,028	5,004
Wa	•••		14,674	12,548
En	•••		3,455	3,684
Pyin	•••	•••	275	273
	Total		172,195	165,757

speaking the respective tribal languages.

The Palaung dialect is spoken in the Northern Shan States and in the Möng Mit State of the Ruby Mines District. Yin or Riang is a dialect spoken by a Palaung tribe which has extended southwards into the Southern Shan States. The Was, with their role tribes the En and the Pain live in the content and the with their sub-tribes the En and the Pyin, live in the eastern portions of the Shan States.

221. Miao-Yao Group of Languages.—The tribes speaking these languages are scattered over the various provinces of South-Western China. Only the most

extreme fringes have crossed the Burmese border line. villages on the eastern border of the Northern and Southern Shan States contain all the representatives to be found in They have not previously appeared in the census re-The inclusion of these dialects as a group of the Mon-Khmer family is justified by Major Davies by a comparison of vocabularies and by the following structural resemblances:-

Dialect.	Number of speakers.
Miao Yao	646 274
Total	920

(i) Noun before adjective.

(ii) Thing possessed before possessor. (iii) Subject before verb.

(iv) Verb before object.

Full vocabularies of the Miao dialect are available, but those for Yao are much less comprehensive.

222. Malayo-Polynesian Family.—The persons using forms of speech belonging to the Malayo-Polynesian family in Burma form a very small portion of the community. They number slightly over 6,000, and can be divided into two groups, the Malay and Salon groups respectively. The Malays are non-indi-

Malay.	1911.	1901.
Strength of race Number speaking racial language.	4,239 4,190	3,983 2,425

Salon (Mawken).	1911.	1901.
Strength of tribe Number speaking tribal language.	1,984 1,871	1,325 1,318

genous and are to be found dwelling in the coast villages of the Mergui District. The Salons (or Mawken) are the wellknown sea-gypsies living in the Malay Archipelago. Previous knowledge of the Salon language has been obtained principally through Chinese and Malay sources. It has recently been the subject

of investigation by the Rev. W. G. White of Moulmein. His "Introduction to the Mawken language" is undoubtedly the most complete study of this language that

has yet been attempted. It is extremely valuable in that its grammar and vocabulary have been obtained directly from the people themselves and not through the medium of Malay or Chinese interpreters. The work is termed "An Intro-duction," and a fuller and more explicit study of the language is promised at a

The real classification of this language must await a study of this new material by philologists. It is probable that the connection with Malay is much less than has been assumed, and that the Malay elements in the language have either been recently incorporated, or have been due to the previous study of the language by means of the Malay language as an investigating medium. Provisionally, the classification of Salon or Mawken as a member of the Malayo-Polynesian family is being retained. With the publication of Mr. White's supplementary volume, there will be full material for the classification of this language, and the family or group to which it belongs can be finally determined.

223. Indian Languages.—The comparison of the various Indian languages as recorded in the years 1901 and 1911 will be found in Subsidiary Table IB

Family.	Branch or	Total number of speakers.	
	group.	1911.	1901.
Dravidian {	Dravida Andhra	126,426	99,934 96,601
Indo-European {	Iranian Indian	1,827 490,043	528 368,108

appended to this chapter. The marginal statement gives a summary of the four principal branches or groups of their two main families. Mr. Lowis has written feelingly of the difficulties experienced in obtaining a record of Indian languages in Burma, and it is not necessary to repeat in detail how these difficulties tend to make a correct record almost impossible. The principal impression produced by an inspection of the com-

parative figures is the slight increase in the number of persons using Indian forms of speech. Immigration from India to Burma is so extensive that the resulting impression on the speech of the country seems disproportionately ineffective. There are many reasons for the divergence between the extent of Indian immigration and the extension of Indian vernaculars. A large part of the immigration is seasonal only, and the immigrants return without having produced any linguistic 'impression; but a still more significant circumstance is the fact that the majority of the immigrants are males. They either live in congested areas where the deathrate largely exceeds the natural increase of population, or else they expand in small numbers over wide stretches of country and intermarry with the Burmese. The children of such mixed unions in the majority of cases speak Burmese and are brought up as Burmans. It will, therefore, be seen that the resultant progress of the Indian languages is far less than the number of immigrants would suggest. The wastage is extremely heavy and the natural increase extremely small. Immigration must first of all supply the natural deficiencies before it can be effective in causing an increase.

224. Chinese.—The increase in the number of people speaking Chinese from 47,444 to 108,877 is not due purely to natural progress nor yet to the effect of large streams of immigration into the province. A large portion of the increase is due to the extension of census limits on the northern and north-eastern frontiers of the province, a region containing a very large proportion of Chinese population.

extra areas in Myitkyina, in North Hsenwi, in Kokang and in West Manglun have added materially to the Chinese population under review. It is probable that among the tribes on the north-eastern frontier the extension of Chinese speech and Chinese influence is proceeding rapidly and is absorbing the members of the minor tribes of that region. It is impossible yet to obtain reliable statistical data as to the progress of the movement but it is probable that with the increase of facilities of communication and the extension of settled Government all the minor dialects of the north-eastern frontier will be gradually submerged by one or other of the dominant languages gradually extending their present limits. While Burmese, Kachin and Shan will extend themselves, it is doubtful whether they will keep pace in this region with the remarkable progress being made by the Chinese language.

### LANGUAGE DISTRIBUTION BY NATURAL DIVISIONS.

- distribution of the population of each district and natural division of the province by the more important language groups. An examination of this table presents a clearer view of the general provincial linguistic characteristics than can be obtained by a consideration of each separate dialect in detail. The Central Basin is predominantly Burmese with 96 per cent, of its population using forms of speech belonging to the Burma group of languages. Its border is fringed with a few dialects from other groups. Karen to the south, Shan to the north and east, and Chin to the west. Also distributed in its towns and larger villages are a number of speakers of other languages (principally Indian and Chinese). But the total of all such non-Burmese elements does not amount to 4 per cent, of the population. In the more Central districts, Sagaing and the Lower Chindwin may be instanced, the users of Burmese forms of speech exceed 99 per cent, of the people, while in no single district does the proportion fall so low as 90 per cent.
- 226. Deltaic Plains.—The linguistic distribution of the population of the deltale plains is much less homogeneous. The Karen languages account for about sixteen and a half per cent, of the total, and the large immigration of natives of India causes the high percentage of 10 53 for languages other than the six main indigenous groups. Of course this latter percentage is weighted by the inclusion of Rangoon which contains approximately two speakers of alien tongues to each Burman. But such percentages as 1464, 1053 and 808 for the population speaking non-indigenous languages in the districts of Hanthawaddy, Pegu and Pyapon respectively, represent the inroads being made by immigrant Indians beyond the limits of Rangoon. Strangely enough, in the natural division of the Province where until recently the Talaings were supreme, not one per cent. of the population is to be found using the Talaing speech. It has ceased to count in the linguistic conflict at present being waged in the deltaic region. The three serious competitors are Burmese, Karen and the various Indian languages. though continually reinforced by heavy immigration, cannot maintain their natural increase owing to the shortage of female immigrants and the absence of any extensive Indian family life. It is improbable, unless conditions change most materially that any Indian language will ever seriously challenge the progress of Burmese and Karen in the rural portions of the deltaic plains.
- Northern Hill Districts.—The linguistic diversity to be found in the Northern Hill Districts is much greater than can be gathered from an examination of Subsidiary Table II. The grouping of the various dialects into their main groups disguises the infinite variety to be found in this portion of the province. Almost every mountain range and every valley has its dialect, differing slightly from those spoken in the vicinity. The absence of facilities for communication and of central administrative control have in the past caused a disintegration of the main linguistic stocks. A contrary tendency is now operating and the four dominant languages, Burmese, Shan, Kachin and Chinese, are absorbing the minor tribal forms of speech. Even in the Northern Hill Districts the languages of the Burmese group claim priority, numbering 39.69 per cent. of the total population as against 35.16 per cent. of Shan speaking peoples. Kachin with approximately 15 per cent, is a rapidly advancing dialect. It must be noted that the 9.55 per cent, speaking other languages are not, as in the deltaic plains, principally natives of India. The chief representatives included in this figure are Chinese and the dialects of the Wa-Palaung and Lolo groups.

228. Coast Ranges.—The geographical discontinuity of this natural division is reflected in its linguistic distribution. The Arakanese portion is mainly divided between the Arakanese dialects of the Burmese group and various Chin dialects, the former predominating except in Northern Arakan. Proximity to Bengal introduces a large Indian element into the Akyab District. In the Tenasserim portion the linguistic distribution is even more heterogeneous. Karen predominates in Salween District, Talaing in Amherst, and Burmese in Tavoy and Mergui. The general supremacy of the Burmese groups is indicated by the percentage of 57.46, whereas Karen and Talaing both fail to attain to a proportion of 10 per cent. of the population. The persons speaking languages other than those of the six main groups form naturally a large proportion, Indian, Siamese and Malay languages contributing a considerable number.

229. Specially Administered Territories.—The two western territories of this division are almost exclusively Chin. Greater diversity is to be found in the Shan States forming its two eastern territories. Shan naturally predominates in both the Northern and the Southern Shan States, being spoken by slightly over half the population of the former and slightly under half the population of the latter. Kachin and the numerous tribal languages on the north-eastern frontier absorb most of the remainder of the people of the Northern Shan States, leaving less than four per cent. speaking Burmese. In the Southern Shan States, Karen Burmese and minor tribal dialects in the order mentioned are the remaining forms of speech.

230. General Summary.—It is a matter of some difficulty to piece together the fragmentary portions of this chapter and reduce them to a few connected

Groups.			Percentage of total population.		
			1911.	1901	
Burmese Karen Shan Talaing Kachin Chin Indian langu Other langu	ages		68.67 8.81 7.99 1.48 1.39 2.45 6.11 3.10	71.77 8.51 8.15 1.49 .65 2.06 5.44	

generalised conclusions. There are many factors which cause a presentation of the dialects of Burma in statistical form to be imperfect. The change in census limits disturbs the comparison with previous The non-coincidence of census and linguistic boundaries cause the figures for many languages and dialects to represent only an unknown portion of the The absence of literate enumerwhole. ators, and the superficial nature of administrative control precisely where linguistic difficulties are greatest and most complex, prevents the records of the

minor dialects from being recorded with the necessary accuracy. To add to these disturbing influences, the general philological ignorance of the relations and distinctions between the separate dialects and groups, precludes the possibility of preparing instructions beforehand to guide enumerators and supervisors in their numerous perplexities. Until a linguistic survey of the province is possible, the census returns for languages can only claim accuracy so far as the main groups of languages are concerned. The speakers of the minor dialects will be entered partly as using the

generic form of speech and partly in their correct minor category.

Considering the general percentages for the province as a whole it is seen that speakers of the Burmese, Shan and Talaing groups of languages form smaller proportions of the provincial population than in 1901. Each of these forms of speech has progressed absolutely. Their reduced percentages are due to two causes. In the first place their progress has not been quite proportionate to the general increase in the provincial population; and in the second place, the extension of the area of linguistic classification has introduced large numbers of speakers of other languages. Karen, reinforced by the dialects of Karenni, has advanced its percentage slightly. Chin has progressed to a still greater degree, owing to the inclusion of the Chin-speaking tribes of the Pakôkku Hill Tracts and to closer and more efficient enumeration. Kachin has more than doubled its proportionate share of the population, owing principally to extensions of census limits on the northern boundary of the province into regions with a high proportion of peoples using Kachin forms of speech. Indian languages have progressed more rapidly than the movement of the general population, but the increase from 5.44 to 6.11 per cent. is trifling in comparison with the large Indian immigration into Burma.

### Subsidiary Table I.—Distribution of Total Population by Languages.

	1				1		
Family.	Sub-Family.	Beanch.	Group.	Sub-Group.	Total numbe	r of speakers.	Per 10,000 of popu- lation in
<b>*******</b>				and divigi	1911.	1901.	lation in 1911.
•	2	3	4	5	G	7	8
			Kuki Chin	•••	296,912	213,171	245
			•••	Meithei	1,629	3,676	1
	}		•••	Old Kuki	249	215	
			• • •	Northern	151	•••	
			***	Chin. Southern	60,280	29,852	50
	-	A	•••	Chin. Unclassed	234,603	179,428	194
Tibeto- Chinese.	Tibeto- Burman.	Assam- Burmese.	Kachin	•••	170,144	67,026	140
			•••	Unclassed	169,414	65,570	139
				Kachin- Burma Hybrids,	730	1,456	τ
7			Lolo	•••	65,548	47,250	54
,			Burma		8,317,842	7,437,363	6,867
) }	Siamese	•••	Sínitic		1,067,363	881,290	881
	Chinese		Tai		968,375	844,306	799
				,	•		
Malayo- Polynesian.	•••		Malay		6,061	3,743	5
			Mon-Khmer		179,443	154,483	148
Austro- Asiatic.	Mon- Khmer.	`	proper. Palaung-Wa	•••	165.757	82,347	136
			Miao Yao	***	920		
			Dravida		126,426	99,934	104
Dravidian		" {	Andhra		123,162	96,601	102
Indo- European,	Агуап	Iranian			1,827	528	ı
Indo- European,		Indian			490,043	368,108	404
Semitic		•••			201	301	•••
Other Asia	atic Language	s			109,989	47,921	91
European	Languages	.,			25,204	19,244	ŽI

### SUBSIDIARY TABLE IA.—Details of Distribution of Population speaking Languages included in the Tibeto-Chinese Family.

Group,	Sub-Group.	Language.	Total Numbe	r of speakers.	Number per	Where chiefly spoken.
Giusp.		Danguage.	1911.	1901.	of Province,	where emeny spoken.
I	2	3	4	5	6	7 .
Kuki-Chin	Meithei Old Kuki Northern Chin	Manipuri Kyaw (Chaw) Siyin	296,912 1,629 249 151	213,171 3,676 215	245 1 	Mandalay and Northern Districts. Northern Arakan. Chin Hills.
	Southern Chin	Yindu Chinbôk Chinbôn Baungshe Khami Anu Thet (Sak)	60,280 4,348 18,179 1,600 1,924 16,431 474 80 17,244	29,852 43   24,389 775 67 4,578	50 4 15 1 2 14 szzA	Pakôkku Hill Tracts. Pakôkku Hill Tracts. Pakôkku Hill Tracts. Pakôkku Hill Tracts. Pakôkku Hill Tracts. Akyab and Northern Arakan. Northern Arakan. Akyah
	Unclassed	Chin  Daingnet M'hang	234,603 233,661 919 23	179,428 176,323 3,105	194 193 1	Districts on both sides of the Arakan Yomas, Akyab, Akyab,
Kachin	Unclassed	Kachin	170,144 169,414	67,026 65,570	140	The Northern Hill Districts and Northern Shan States.
	Kachin-Burma Hybrids.	Tsi (Szi) Maingtha Lashi Maru	730 205 316	1,456 756 465 84 151		Ruby Mines. Distributed over Northern Hill Districts. Northern Shan States.
Lolo		Lisu (Lisaw) Lahu (Muhsö) Kwi (Lahu Hsi). Akha (Kaw) Akö Lolo (Myen)	65,548 9,066 18,500 3,924 32,925 794 339	47,250 1,605 16,732  27,751 1,162	54 8 15 3 27 1	Upper Salween Valley. Southern Shan States. Southern Shan States. Këngtung. Këngtung. Beyond the Burma frontier.
Burma		Burmese Arokanese Taungyo Intha Danu Hpôn Tavoyan Kadu Chaungtha	8,317,842 7,883,299 323,962 19,317 55,880 18,694 342 46 11,069 2,515	7,437,363 7,006,495 383,400 10,543 5,851  5 16,300 1,350	6,867 6,507 268 16 . 46 . 16	All over the province. Arakan. South-west of Southern Shan States. The vicinity of Yanghwe State. The western border of the Southern Shan States. Near the third defile of the Irrawaddy. Tavoy District. Katha District. Northern Arakan.
		Mrō Yaw	2,718	13,414	2	The Arakan-Chittagong border.
Sinitic	•••	Karen (Sgau _ and Pwo). Taungthu Karenni Karennet Karenbyu Zayein	1,067,363 850,756 168,326 21,203 728 777 4,892	881,290 7°4,835 16°,436 1,363  4,666	881 702 139 18 	The Deltaic Plains.  The border between Burma and the Southern Shan States.  Karenni.  Karenni.  Karenni.  South of Southern Shan States.
; T4:		Sinsin Brè Manô Yinbaw Padaung	899 6,918 2,182 2,166 8,516	 669  9,321	 6 2 2 . 7	Karenni. Karenni. Karenni. Karenni. Karenni. South of Southern Shan States.
Tai	•••	Shan Tai-Loi Hkün Lu Daye Siamese	968,375 897,578  48,408 13,262 225 8,902	844,306 75°,473 12,762 42,160 19,380  19,531	799 740  40 11  8	Northern Hill Districts and Southern Shan States.  Kengtung. Kengtung. West of Southern Shan States. Mergui.

Subsidiary Table Ib.—Details of Distribution of Population speaking Languages not included in the Tibeto-Chinese Family.

	,				ميريد ده ه				THE TOTAL PROPERTY SERVE SERVE SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER SERVER
;							umber of	Number	; ;
; Family,	Sab- lamily.	Branch	Grap.	SaleGroup.	Language,	i spea	kers.	per 10,000 of popula-	Where chiefly spoken.
· #/g.	family.	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·			1911.	1901.	i tion of	Typers emeny species
					e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e		1	Province.	
1	3	1		5	6	7	s	9	10
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Malayo- Polynesian.	,		Malay	•••	,,,,,,	6,061	3,743	5	
23				Sal-n	*****	1,871	1,318	2	Mergui Archipelago.
<b>a</b> 5	:		5	(Mawken).					•
20			ì	Malay		4,190	2,425	3	Mergui.
			Mon-Khmer	,	Talaing	179.443	154.483	1.19	Thaton and Amherst Districts.
			Proper.		or and a supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control of the supplemental control		-31:403		a supplied to the first september of the second second second second second second second second second second
į			Palaung-Wa	••	*****	165.757	82,347	136	
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Austro-Asiatic.	Mon-Khmer.		;	į	Yin (Riang)	5,044	4,490	3	Southern Shan States.
3	75	,			Wa	12,545	7,667	10	North-Eastern Border of Northern
ò	. 🛱	,	•	1	En	3,684		,	and Southern Shan States. Southern Shan States.
ង្គ	ž			4	Pyin	3,004		3 (	Southern Shan States.
4				·	Hkamuk		75	•••	*****
	•		381 35 -	,	or yes substituting any suppressions.		,	***	Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Control of the Contro
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	•				Miao (Hmang)	646	•••	•••	Shan States.
	t is there is not the second	. wa tem .	20 m		ng yang yang penganganan sementi dirik yang pengangan merulipi in	***************************************		1	
			Dravida .		***	126,106	59,900	10.1	1 5.2
Ä		•			Tamil	125,070	99,576	104	Diffused but principally in Rangoon and the towns of Lower Burma.
- 2					Malayalam	736	324		and the towns of Lower Burna.
Dravidian.							V 48774 A		
•	1 x		Andhra	••	Telego	123,162	96,601	102	Rangoon and towns of Lower Burma,
i •		2	•		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		*		A V. C. Age provide an interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest and interest
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į		,		!	Marathi	1,711	444	1	1
		1	:		Oriya	19,112	12,997	16.	
ă	<b>.</b>				Bengali	548'310	204,973	205	
9	Arya				Hindi	40,105	28,689	33	1
ij	₹	;	· .		Hindustani	135,215	95,122	112	
lado-European.		1	•		Urdu Nagri	9,374	•••	8,	Diffused.
=	r	1		4	Gujarati	7,8,6	4,048	7	) Dillused.
	1		'		Kachhi	7,070	61	1	
400	ţ	1		1	Goanese	351	67	•••	
1		1			Punjabi Marawari	22,938	15,845 280	19	
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Semi-			***	***	Arabic	201	301		Rangoon.
		Other Ari	atic Language	A.		109,989	47,887	, i	)
	,	ouici Misi	were wanknake	cs ,,,	Chinese	108,877	47,887	91 89	
		•			Hebrew	.476	254	í	1
				1	Caucassian Turkish	20	₩ 6	•••	Diffused.
				1	Japanese	558	107	т	1
1	-				Phillipine (tagala)	53	`		
	····				Untraced	•••	76	•••	)
		Europea	n Languages		*****	25,204	19,244	ar	
		-			English	24,355	18,500	30	
1					French German	135	82 126		Diffused.
1					Italian	152		•••	
					Other European	406	51 485	I	/
					languages.		<u> </u>		
-								· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	

# SUBSIDIARY TABLE II.—Distribution by Language of the Population of each district.

	Numi	ner per 10,000	of population	speaking lar	iguages of the	following gro	oups.
istrict and Natural Division.	Burmese.	Karen.	Shan.	Talaing.	Kachin.	Chin.	Other languages.
ľ	3	3	4	5	- 6	7	8
Whole Province	6,867	881	799	148	139	245	921
I.—Central Basin	9,895	19	17			161	198
Prome Thayetmyo Pakôkku Minbu Magwe Mandalay Shwebo Sagaing Lower Chindwin Kyauksè Meiktila Yamèthin	9,860 9,775 9,555	104 - 1 	20  1 103 34  6 5 36 2			295 820 335 669 69    41	240 160 62 157 151 826 128 95 62 134 219 247 75
II.—Deltaic Plains	. 7,105	1,648	85	90		19	1,058
Pyapôn Thatôn	7,629 9,066 7,875 7,345 8,898	772 527 849 2,164 782 2,865 2,804 530 4,808	11 7 7 1	83		 2 32 - 29 12 89 2 	453 360 808 637
III.—Northern Hill Distri	cts 3,96	9 6	3,516	,	1,498	5 6	955
Myitkyina Katha Ruby Mines	2,36 1,03 5,06 4,06	5 0	2,48; 2,63. 6 4,50. 7 1,82; 4 4,45	 5	7 3,982 4,589 303 891 10	B	
IV.—Coast Ranges	5,74	18 93	16	0 98	34	48	1,747
Akyab Northern Arakan Kyaukpyu Sandoway Salween Amherst Tavoy Mergui	9,1	44 21 19 53 8,69 93 1,99 95	24 2(	1 1 29 57 3,8	1 04 8	7,57	28 3,659 24 332 74 182 74 105 6 145 1,242 198 9 1,266
V.—Specially Admittered Territorics	inis- 1,0	7,3	ō <b>8</b> 4,4	11	1 40	88 9	57 1,697
Northern Shan St Southern Shan St Pak34ku Hill Tr Chin Hills	ates 1,	384 608 2,3	- 1	328		' l 68	2 2,97 1,20 025 6 0355 13

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE III.—Comparison of Tribe, Race and Language Tables. INDIGENOUS TRIBES AND RACES ONLY.

Group.		Tribe.		Strength of tribe (Table XIII).	Number speaking tribal language (Table X).
Kuki-Chin		Chaw (Kyaw) Yindu Khami Anu Thet Taungtha Daingnet M'hang Chinbôk Chinbôh Baungshe Siyin Other Chin Tribes Chin (unspecified)		306,486 249 4,348 16,372 479 79 17,462 954 23 18,179 1,600 14,216 3,108 98,094 131,323	295,283 249 4,348 16,431 474 80 17,244 919 23 18,179 1,600 1,924 Entered as speaking Chin. 233,661
Kachin				162,368	169,414
Kachin-Burma H	ybrids	Tsi (Szi) Maingtha Lashi Maru	••• •••	10,167 3,003 401 2,908 3,855	730 205 4 316 
Lolo		Lolo (Myen) Lisu (Lisaw) Lahu (Muhsö) Kwi (Lahu Hsi) Akha (Kaw) Akö		67,418 339 \$.487 :8.103 3.189 38.181 \$.119	65,548 339 9,066 18,500 3,924 32,925 794
Burma		Burmese Arakanese Taungyo Intha Danu Hpôn Tavoyan Kadu Chaungtha Mrö Yaw Taman Yabein			8,317,842 7,883,299 323,962 19,317 55,880 18,694 342 46 11,669 2,515 2,718

### CHAPTER X.

### Infirmities.

### INFIRMITIES GENERALLY.

231. Definition and Statistics.—No change was made at the recent census regarding the information to be collected as to the infirmities of the people. The enquiries were limited to four infirmities only, insanity, deaf-mutism, blindness and leprosy. The following instructions were issued to enumerators with respect to the record of infirmities:—

"If any person be blind of both eyes or insane, or suffering from corrosive leprosy, or deaf and dumb from birth, enter the name of the infirmity in this column. Do not enter those who are blind of one eye only, or who are suffering from white leprosy only, or who have become deaf and dumb after birth."

The resultant statistics are to be found in Imperial Tables XII, Parts I and II, giving the distribution of infirmities by age and by districts, and Imperial Table XII-A giving the distribution by race. These are supplemented by four Subsidiary Tables printed at the end of this Chapter as follows:—

Subsidiary Table 1.—Number afflicted per 100,000 of the population at each of the last four census.

Subsidiary Table II.—Distribution of the infirm by age per 10,000 of each sex.

Subsidiary Table III.—Number afflicted per 100,000 persons of each age period and number of females afflicted per 1,000 males.

Subsidiary Table IV.—Number afflicted per 100,000 of the population of 14 selected races.

It should be noted that the proportions in Subsidiary Tables I, III and IV-are calculated per 100,000 of the total population, and not per 100,000 of each sex. Thus, the rates of insanity for Burma in 1911 are 43 males and 36 females for every 100,000 of the total population, not 43 males per 100,000 males nor 36 females per 100,000 females.

232. Accuracy of Statistics.—It is a matter of some difficulty to estimate the degree of accuracy to be accorded to the statistics for infirmities. They depend on a diagnosis made by enumerators who in the majority of instances are not qualified for the record of any facts that are not immediately obvious. There is an infinity of gradations between cretinism and weakness of intellect on the one hand, and insanity on the other, and it is impossible by any form of instruction to ensure that the same standard of inclusion shall be observed from district to district, or even from enumerator to enumerator. In the case of deaf-mutism it is difficult to ensure that only congenital deaf-mutes shall be entered. Similarly in the case of blindness, there is the probability that persons whose sight has grown dim on account of age will be included. The returns for leprosy, may, despite warning and instructions, include many suffering from leucoderma or syphilis. It is not probable that there is any wilful concealment, save possibly in the case of females suffering from leprosy.

But apart from the original record there has existed a possibility of error during the process of compilation due to the fact that the entries for infirmities, being few and incidental, and made in the final column of the enumeration schedule were apt to be overlooked. The error from this source was considered by Mr.

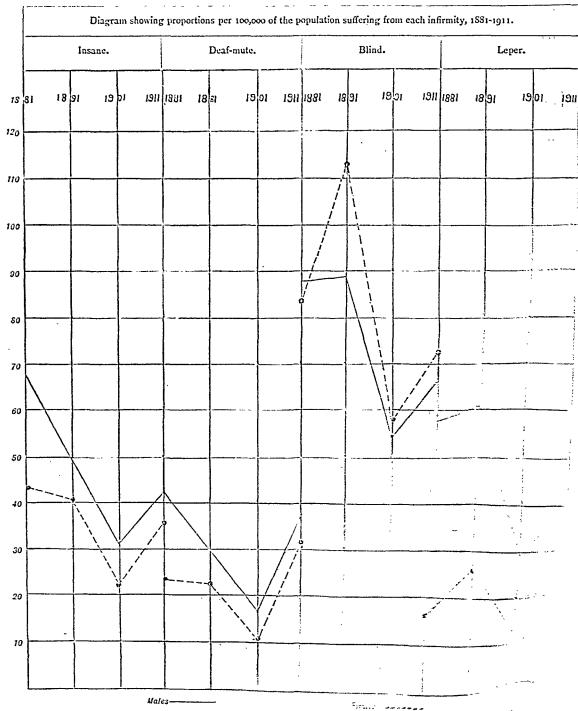
Lowis with reference to the census of 1901 in the following terms:

"In a word, the decline must be more apparent than real, and it remains to consider what causes can have operated to produce such vastly different returns, and to decide whether on the whole it is more probable that the figures were unduly inflated in 1891 or that there were improper omissions ten years later. In so far as there is a marked falling off in the figures for the later enumeration, the onus probandi clearly rests on the shoulders of the 1907 Superintendent; for, while the temptation wilfully to make incorrect entries is practically nil, the danger of overlooking the infirmities' column (column 16) is ever present both in the cases of enumeration and abstraction. As regards abstraction, for which I, and I alone, am responsible, I am not prepared to say that some portion of the decrease may not be due to the posters having missed entries in column 16. Placed, as that column is, at the edge of the schedule and almost hidden on the left-hand page when the book is doubled, it was inevitable that here and there an entry should evade even the most vigilant

eye. In the administrative volume I am, in offering suggestions for improving abstraction at the next census, suggesting that the infirmities column, which is but seldom filled up and is apt thus to be forgotten and overlooked, should be placed in a more conspicuous position in the schedule."

To avoid a repetition of errors of this nature in the course of compilation for the current census, the tabulation of infirmities was effected from a set of special infirmity slips, prepared by a staff selected for the purpose. The chance of omission of incidental entries in an inconspicuous portion of the schedule was eliminated by making these entries the object of special slips devoted to infirmities only. The possibility of being overlooked in the course of a mass of other entries was avoided by dividing the work of slip copying into two separate operations, the copying of the general entries on the enumeration schedule being effected on one slip, and the copying of infirmities being effected on another.

### 233. General variations since 1881.—



Before considering the distribution and impartions of each is firming examination of the proportions of the four securities joined comparative examination of their requestive amportance states and

interest. The materials of the comparisons are to be found in Subsidiary Table I, but for convenience of reference, they are embodied in the marginal statement.

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fraux		43	31	51 2)	63
Dad-mate Blad	• • • •	37	17 54	- 39 ; - 39 ;	\$ \$ \$
Legis	***	7.3	29		33
Tanka.	r@vtr	ii. Ageria	yada par	alatha.	
					1831.
Fevales.				alatha.	1931.
lairma <sub>j</sub> . Insure		30	3,423.	1891. 41	44
		1)11.	1,421.	1891.	

It represents the proportions of each sex per 100,000 of the population afflicted with each infirmity respectively. The diagram at the head of this paragraph presents in a graphical form the figures in the marginal statement for the four infirmities. In some respects the diagram is remarkable. For insanity and deaf-mutism there is a marked decline from 1881 to 1891, continued until 1901, and thence an equally marked increase to 1911. Blindness and leprosy show an increase during the decade 1881 to 1891, a decrease during the succeeding decade, and revert again to an increase between 1901 and 1911. The proportions for females in each case vary in the same directions as the proportions for males. They continue throughout at

a lower level for the three infirmities of insanity, deaf-mutism and leprosy. For blindness, the proportions for females commence at a lower level in 1891, and thence forward, while following the same directions, maintain a higher level. Such variations are not inherently probable, and it is necessary to examine to what extent they are due to extraneous causes. These may be classified under the following heads:—

- (i) changes of census area,
- (ii) errors of record,
- (iii, errors of tabulation.

234. Variations due to changes of area.—It is necessary in considering the variations in the proportions of infirmities to bear in mind that the census

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A.44a.	Sex.		Bila	lae ou	Letri	zy.
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Ar wice	Maios Frensles	*** *** ***	13 31 87 83 83	89 113 54 49 37	53 / 10 / 77 13 51	61 20 97 13 43

areas differ for each of the four years of comparison. In 1891 the greater portion of Upper Burma was added to the census area and it was to this addition that the upward tendency of the proportions of blindness and leprosy between 1881 and 1891 is due. If a comparison be made over the districts of the Deltaic Plains or the Coast Ranges identical areas for the two years of enumeration, the tendency of the

je just in a streeth infimities is to move downwards rather than upwards. The corresponding je postil us of blindiness and leprosy from 1851 to 1891 was not but to as a suit a material in the prevalence of the infirmitie, but to the inclusion of the said that area where they were more prevalent than in the original area the less to list our trips and toget large portions of the Specially Admitished to the first large area which to the general result failty, and the general last of the same attended are a in type was extremely facility, and the general last of the same above of all recorded to the large decline of the start of the said of the same and proportions of all recorded to the said of the said of the said proportions of all recorded to the said of the said of the said proportions for the whole posterior of the said of the said proportions for the whole posterior which is a said of the said proportions for the whole posterior which is a said of the said proportions for the whole posterior which is a said of the said proportions for the whole posterior which is a said of the said of the proportions in linear general operations.

File Verses one increasing to Hirrors of Henord and Tabulation with one was a property of the major of the company of

Census Report for 1891, Mr. Eales predicted that large decreases in the returns of all four infirmities and especially in the returns of the blind and the lepers might be expected in the Upper Province. The general decrease in the proportions of each infirmity for both males and females between 1891 and 1901 is due partly to a more correct appreciation on the part of enumerators of the nature of the infirmities of which a record was required. To that extent the decrease indicated a closer return to reality. But the decrease was exaggerated beyond its legitimate limits by errors of record and tabulation. In the added areas of the Specially Administered Territories, omissions to record infirmities were general. In both the Northern and the Southern Shan States, it was admitted by the local officers that there was a tendency to omit the afflicted, and the records for the current census show to what a considerable extent the tendency operated. In the Chin Hills the difficulties encountered by census officers in 1901 were so great, that the record of infirmities was most defective. The record of particulars like infirmities, which in the opinion of the enumerators are unessential, chiefly suffers when difficulties of enumeration are encountered. Reference has already been made to the possibility of omissions in the course of tabulation. The marked decline in the proportions of all infirmities between 1891 and 1901 is therefore a resultant of three causes, a narrower interpretation of the meanings of the terms used, omission to record infirmities fully in certain areas, and omissions in the course of tabulation. It is natural that there should have been a reaction in 1911 against the artificial nature of the decline due to the last two of the three causes. opportunities for better enumeration in the Specially Administered Territories, and the reform in infirmity slip copying as a result of the experience gained during the compilation of the results in 1901, have undoubtedly been responsible for a large portion, if not all, of the increase recorded in the decade 1901 to 1911.

It is therefore almost impossible to obtain any approach to the true variation in the prevalence of infirmities for the past three decades. The disturbing influences of change of area and errors of record have effectively disguised the real variations by introducing artificial factors of variation into the resultant statistics. It is perhaps not too much to hope that in 1911 a close approach to actuality has been obtained. Lapse of time has enabled previous errors and misinterpretations to be corrected, and the possibilities of disturbance are now less than they have been at any time previously. No advantage will be obtained by a detailed comparison of the figures for 1901 and 1911 for each infirmity, when artificial factors have exercised such a great influence on the statistics recorded.

236. Racial order of Prevalence of Infirmities.—Before considering each infirmity in detail, an examination of the order of prevalence of the several

infirmities recorded among the various races of the province, as measured by the proportions of the afflicted per hundred thousand of the population, is interesting. Although there is no absolute coincidence of the orders for the different infirmities, there is a remarkable tendency for certain races to be near the top in each case. Thus the Kadus, the Kachins and the Chins between them monopolise the first place for all four infirmities, and

Race.		Order of prevalence.					
	;	Insanity.	Deaf-mutism.	Blindness.	Leprosy.		
Kadu Kachin Chin Intha Shan Wa-Palaung Taungyo Danu Taungthu' Chinese Burmese Karen Talaing Arakanese		3 1 4 6 7 5 9 8 14 10 12 13	2 1 3 7 5 4 13 8 9 6 10 11 12 14	1 4 10 3 2 58 6 9 11 7 12 13	1 8 3 2 5 11 4 13 12 9 6 7 10		

contribute two seconds and three thirds in the tests. In the somewhat allied infirmities of insanity and deaf-mutism, these three races retain the whole of the first three places in the order of prevalence. The three races are somewhat allied, the Chins forming an earlier movement of the Western Tibeto-Burman invasion and the Kachins the later movement of the same invasion, while the Kadus are a hybrid race to which Chins and Kachin, Shan and Burmese have all contributed. Among the Chins and Kachins, local officers are unanimous in attributing the high prevalence of insanity and deaf-mutism to excessive interbreeding, due to lax morality, smallness of villages, and the distance and difficulty of communication

are affected by the presence of a large asylum), are the Chin Hills, the Upper Chindwin, Myitkyina and the Northern Shan States. Here the marked prevalence of

insanity can be traced to the Chins in the Chin Hills, to the Kachins in Myitkyina, to the Kachins, and to a minor extent the Was and Palaungs, in the Northern Shan States, and in the Upper Chindwin to the people of primitive Chin tribes who have adopted the names of the Burmese and the Shan races while still maintaining their primitive customs. The proportion of insanity among the Chins, 321 males and 315 females per hundred thousand of the total population, is so high that there

must be some special cause operating beyond the rigorous conditions of life among

tribes generally. Reference has already been made in Chapter VII to the exceedingly lax morality of the Chins prior to marriage, and to the custom of cousin marriage amongst them. It is to the promiscuous sexual intercourse and close interbreeding that prevail that the high rate of insanity among the Chins The Superintendent must be attributed. of the Chin Hills, Captain J. D. Prothero,

Insanity per 100,000 of populatintensit	ion in distric y•	ts of highest
District,	Males.	Females.
Chin Hills	593	619
Myitkyina Northern Shan States	92 82	7.4 75

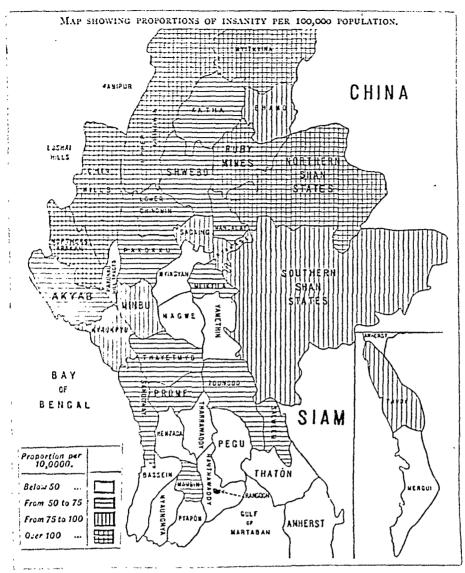
Insanity per 100,000 of population among Chins, Kachin and Wa-Palaungs,						
Race.		Males	Females.			
Chins Kachins Wa-Palaungs		32t 108 53	315 125 65			

is of the opinion that the number of idiots is to a great extent due to constant intermarriage of close relations. He found the numbers of idiots in a small village far greater in proportion than in large villages. As the Chins under his observation seldom married outside their own village the amount of intermarriage between closely related persons became excessive in small villages, and resulted in an undue prevalence of insanity. Similarly among the Kachins, great freedom of sexual intercourse is permitted to children of early age. The amount of interbreeding is greatly modified by the peculiar system of exogamy prevailing, and these prohibitions are observed even in pre-marital intercourse. But perfect freedom of marriage (and of pre-marital intercourse) is permitted between a man and the daughter of his maternal uncle. Mr. Lewisohn, Deputy Commissioner of Bhamo, reports that among the Kachins interbreeding is very common because of the smallness of the ordinary Kachin Village and its distance from other villages. The prevailing system of exogamy does not therefore prevent a considerable amount of interbreeding and first cousin marriage. This, combined with yearly indulgence in sexual intercourse, leads to a large percentage of children being born of immature parents, and accounts for the high rate of insanity amongst them. Thus, among two different races, in localities far from each other, two independent observers have noticed a similar cause producing a similar effect.

The only provision for segregating the insane is the Lunatic Asylum, Rangoon, with accommodation for about 500 patients. At the date of the census the numbers returned were 365 males and 78 females. The necessary corrections of the proportions of insane for 1911 in the City of Rangoon after excluding the inmates of the asylum who were born in other parts of the province has been given in a footnote to Subsidiary Table I. As the total number of insane recorded is 9,582, the provision for the seclusion of the insane can accommodate less than 5 per cent. of the total insanity of the province.

239. Local Distribution of Insanity.—The accompanying map indicates the extent to which the average proportion of insanity for the whole province ? the resultant of numerous divergent proportions in Effect localities. The general average of 43 males and 36 females per hundred thousand of the toppopulation gives a proportion of 79 per hundred thousand for both sexes. variations range from 24+11=35 per hundred thousand in Pegu District +619=1,212 per hundred thousand in the Chin Hills Administration of the controller appealing it is the lowest in the Chin Hills Administration. Generally speaking it is the lowest in the missions of the Deltais for the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period and the Control Period a prevalent in the Central Basin and the districts of the Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast State Coast Stat reaches its maximum in the hilly districts on the Surfern frontier of culminating in the administrative area of the Din Hills. There are explanations of the excess insanity in the number border social practices, and race. It is probable that each of these three

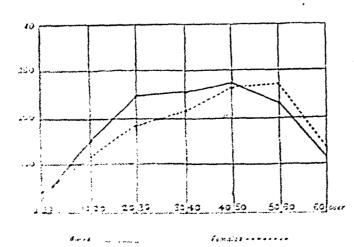
their share. Indeed race is determined largely by locality, and social practices are determined by race. Diversities of race are largely due to the barriers imposed



by impassable mountain ranges against free and constant intercommunication. Diversities social customs follow, and it would be difficult to separate the influences exercised by each factor on the comparative sanity of the people. the Indian Census Report 1901, the predominant influence was given to the race, general figures for India as a whole not demonstrating

connection between insanity and local conditions, and giving but little support to the theory that consanguineous marriages have a tendency to produce mental unsoundness. In Burma race is undoubtedly an important factor in the liability of insanity, but in the opinions of local officers the social practices associated with the races showing high proportions of insanity have considerable weight as contributary causes. It seems also probable that the greater the difficulties of communication, the greater will be the possibilities of consanguinity in marriage. The high proportions of insanity in the districts on the northern frontier of the province may therefore

THATKAM TELEVITRATING INSANITY BY DECENNIAL AGE PERIODS PER 100,000 TOPPLATION.



be attributed partly to the greater liability of the hill races to insanity, partly to their low stage of civilization and their primitive sexual customs, and partly to influence of the locality in producing and perpetuating these conditions.

240. Insanity by age periods.—The annexed diagram shows the proportions of insane persons per 100,000 of the population. It is natural that the proportions should be low in childhood, when mental disease has not made itself

225

manifest. Among males, it rises rapidly till the age period 20 to 30 arrives, then there is an almost imperceptible increase till the maximum of insanity at the rate

of 275 per hundred thousand of the population is reached between the ages 40 and 50. From this period there is a slow decline till the age period 50 to 60, after which there is a rapid decline. After 30 comparatively few males become mentally afflicted, but it is not till between 40 and 50 that the relatively high mortality among the insane is sufficiently great to outweigh the accession of new cases and cause a decline in their proportionate numbers. Among females the rise in the proportion of insanity is much more gradual than among males. It is not till the age period 40 to 50, corresponding with the change of life, that the proportion of insanity

Insanity by 6	leceni	nial age pe	riods per
	of th	e populatio	n.
Age.		Males.	Females.
0—10	•••	29	30
10—20		142	109
20—30		241	187
30—40		257	218
40—50		275	266
50—60		233	274
60 and over		104	126

the change of life, that the proportion of insanity approximates to that of males. The proportion of female insanity continues to rise till the age period, 50 to 60, indicating that the new cases still outnumber the mortality among the insane at this period. This continued rise places the proportion of female insanity at a higher rate than that of male insanity. After this period the proportion continues to decline, the rates of decrease of male and female insanity being approximately equal.

241. Insanity by Race.—There are many signs that the records of insanity among the population in the more remote portions of the province are still

defective. The disparity between male and insanity among the Taungyos and Taungthus indicates defective records. The extremely high proportions of insanity among the Chins and the Kachins has already been the subject of discussion. The low position in the scale, of the Burmese, the Arakanese and the Talaings who are all plain-dwellers, leads to the conclusion that there is a greater predisposition to insanity among the hill races of the province. The Karens whose infirmities have been tabulated are almost exclusively plain-dwellers, the hill Karens being excluded because at the time of sorting for infirmities only the members of the main race and the easily identifiable tribes could be sorted. The low rate of insanity

Insanity	by rac	e per 100,0	ooo populat	ion.
Race.		Total.	Males.	Females.
Chin Kachin Kadu Intha Taungyo Shan Wa-Palaung Taungthu Danu Burmese Arakanese Karen Talaing Chinese	7	666 233 179 178 157 129 118 84 68 65 60 46 34	321 108 9 85 20 68 53 17 41 37 36 27 23	315 125 170 93 137 61 65 67 27 28 24 19

among the Karens may therefore be taken as confirming the conclusion that it is among the hill races that insanity is most prevalent. The Inthas, a tribe of lakedwellers of Burmese race, living on the Yawnghwe Lake in the Southern Shan States have a high rate of insanity, indicating that locality, environment and social customs may modify the rate of insanity to a considerable extent.

The figures for insanity in the four districts of Arakan suggest that, with increasing contact with civilization a lower rate of insanity is induced among

the Chins. The generally higher rates of insanity for these districts in earlier years is due to the large numbers of Chins, but recently arrived from the purely Chin country. Allowing for

Insanity (	er 100,0	oo of the	populat	ion for A	rakan D	istricts.		
District.		Mal	les.			Fem	ales.	
District.	1911.	1901.	1891.	1881.	1911.	1901.	1891.	1831.
Akyab Northern Arakan Kyaukpyu Sandoway	43 58 51 37	28 126 32 29	53 130 58 54	79 55 121 107	31 72 31 27	73 19 16	37 55 35 38	45 76 60 75

such obvious mistakes as the under-estimate of masculine insanity in Northern Arakan in 1881, and the general artificial decline in insanity in 1901, there would appear to have been a progressive improvement extending throughout the past thirty years. It is difficult to determine the degree of reliance to be placed on the figures. For instance, it is highly probable that the amount of

insanity in the current census for the Northern Arakan District has been under-recorded. But on the whole a substantial reduction in the proportion of insanity appears to have been effected, and this must have occurred among the Chin population which caused the abnormally high rates during the earlier enumerations.

### \_ DEAF-MUTISM.

242. Deaf-mutes.—The marked increase in the numbers of deaf-mutes over those for 1891 and 1901 is due to facts already noticed. Since 1891,

ites (Actual n	umbers).
Males,	Females.
2,150	1,754
1,731	1,112
4,731	3,833
	Males. 2,150 1,731

census operations have been extended into regions where the infirmity is markedly prevalent, the figures for 1911 including for the first time the full records for the infirmities of such regions. The proportion of 71 (39 males and 32 females) per hundred thousand of the population is no indication whatever of the general prevalence of deaf-mutism over the province generally. It is unduly enhanced by excessive proportions in two of the natural divisions

of the province. It is the resultant of proportions so widely divergent as 45, 33 and 43 per hundred thousand for the districts of the Central Basin, the Deltaic

Deaf-mutism per 100,000 popu	lation by I	Natural Divisi	ons 1911.
Division.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Province	39	32	71
Central Basin	25	20	45
Deltaic Plains	20	13	33
Northern Hill Districts	122	112	234
Coast Ranges	27	16	43
Specially Administered Territories.	108	101	209
Territories.		{	Į.

Plains and the Coast Ranges respectively, on the one hand, and 234 and 209 for the two remaining natural divisions, on the other. Omitting the intervening year 1901 it is seen that for the two main natural divisions of the province the Central Basin and the Deltaic Plains, the proportions have diminished for both males and females.

In the districts of the Coast Ranges there has been a minor increase of one point for each sex. The increase of proportions for the province is due to the

Comparison of deaf-mutism p	er 100,000	population	for 1891 an	d 1911.
,,,	Ma	les.	Fema	iles.
Division.	1911.	1891.	1901.	1891.
Province Central Basin Deltaic Plains Northern Hill Districts Coast Ranges Specially Administered Territories,	39 25 20 122 27 108	29 33 23 35 26	32 20 13 112 16	23 31 17 32 15

two remaining divisions, the Specially Administered Territories being brought into the census area, and the census operations in the Northern Hill Districts being extended to include those regions where deaf-mutism is markedly prevalent. There has therefore been no increase of deafmutism within the province, the high proportions in com-

parison with previous years being due to the facts that the records of infirmities for 1891 and 1911 are for different areas and that the added areas have no similarity of conditions with those previously included.

243. Local distribution of deaf-mutism.—The most noticeable feature of the map shewing the distribution of deaf-mutism over the province is the fringe

Proportions of deaf-mutes per	er 100,000 i valence.	n district o	f greatest
District,	Total.	Males.	Females.
Chin Hills Northern Shan States Bhama Myltkyina	401 350 474 474	223 177 236 271	178 173 238 203

of districts of high prevalence around its northern borders. There is a straggling continuation of moderate prevalence through the Pakôkku, Minbu, and Sandoway districts due to the southern extension of the Chins, and a rather high proportion in Tavoy. The remaining districts have a proportion of deaf-mutism of less than 50 per hundred thousand of the population.

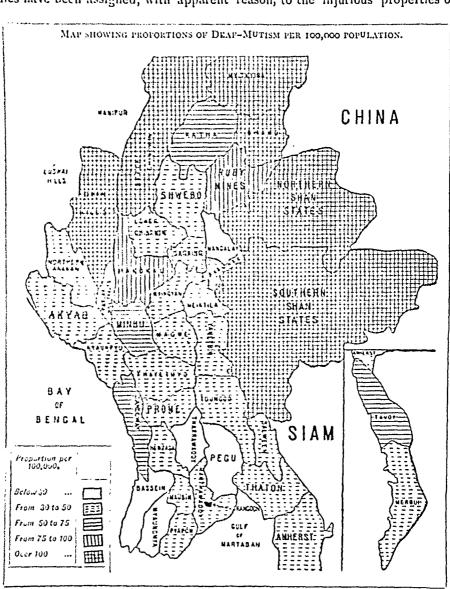
The districts where the infirmity is most prevalent are Bhamo, Myitkyina, the Chin Hills and the Northern Shan States. An examination was made of the sorting registers to see if the areas of greatest prevalence of deaf-mutism could be still further

localised. In Bhamo it was found to be most prevalent in the Shwegu Kachin Hills with a percentage of 7.05 (3.48 males and 3.57 females) of the total population affected. In Mynkyina it was found to be most prevalent in the Sadon and Sima Kachin Hills. In the Northern Shan States, it was traced to six Kachin Circles and two Shan Circles of the North Hsenwi States and in the Chin Hills it was most prevalent in the Falam Subdivision. In view of this localisation an attempt was made to see if it was possible to arrive at any conclusions similar to those suggested in paragraph 247 of the India Census Report for 1901 as follows:—

"The connection of deaf-mutism with cretinism and goitre has already been noticed, and all these maladies have been assigned, with apparent reason, to the injurious properties of

the water oſ certain rivers, especially those which flow írom the Himalayas, such as the Chenab, the Gandak and the Makhna. This aspect of the subiect has been investigated with some fulness the Bengal Census Report and it has been shown that, in the districts where deafdumbness is most prevaleut, it haunts the banks of the Burhi Gandak, the Dhanauti and the Bagmati, and that it rapidly diminishas the distance from these rivers increases. Mr. Burnin the

United Pro-



vinces points out that the infirmity is chiefly found on the new alluvium deposited by the Ghagra, Gandak and Rapti, i.e., presumably in the tracts where the supply is obtained from these rivers. In Burma and Assam the hilly country has a higher ratio of deaf-dumbness than the open lowlands, but the reports do not show whether it is diffused evenly throughout the hills or is confined mainly to the river valleys that intersect them. In Madras it is said that no connection is apparent between mountainous tracts and this infirmity and that no correlation can be traced between it and locality. It is possible that the failure may be due to the district having been taken as the unit of comparison, and that if the ratios for smaller areas were examined, the influence of certain localities or sources of water-supply might be established."

244. Association of deaf-mutism with cretinism and goitre.—As regards the connection of deaf-mutism with cretinism and goitre in the localised areas where the former is most prevalent, Mr. W. A. Hertz, C.S.I., Deputy Commissioner, Myitkyina, writes:—

"All these diseases may be connected in some way as it is rare to see a cretin or deafmute who is not also suffering from goitre. The people themselves are unable to ascribe

any reason for the prevalence of these diseases except as regards goitre, which they put down to the white salt they have been able to obtain since the taking over of the country by Government. This however is absurd. I also can advance no theory regarding the prevalence of goitre, except the commonly accepted one that it is prevalent in all mountainous countries and is due to some substance in solution in drinking water. It may be aggravated by the Kachin custom of consuming large quantities of lime in powdered form. Their habit of carrying heavy loads suspended by a band round the forehead may, by throwing an undue strain on the muscles of the neck, increase the growth among those who have already contracted the disease. I have also heard that there are more goitrous people in villages that see little of the sun than in villages that are better situated in this respect."

Captain J. D. Prothero, Superintendent of the Chin Hills, states that there is no doubt that deaf-mutism is often connected with goitre and cretinism, but the following extract from his report shews that goitre is also even more closely connected with insanity:—

"The amount of goitre in the district especially in parts of the Haka subdivision has increased very much in the last twenty years and I should say that two out of every three idiots are afflicted with goitre."

In the Northern Shan States, Mr. H. Thornton, C.S., writing of the circles in which deaf-mutism was found to be most prevalent, states:—

"There is little goitre among the inhabitants of the valley but the hill villages of the Hsanghkehpong and of Se-u are full of cases and in these villages the people probably drink the water of the small hill streams. The Mongwun circle and the Hsaikao circle are also drained by feeders of the Namtu and goitre is very prevalent there also. The Mong Htam, Mong Si, and Kangmong circles are drained by the Nam Nim which enters the Salween near the Kunlon ferry. These circles are full of goitre. Kangmong, where the people are especially poor, is particularly so. The Mong Ya circle is drained by the Nam Mwe which flows into the Salween. Goitre is also very noticeable here."

In the Bhamo District deaf-mutism was associated with lunacy rather than with goitre, but one case is mentioned in which amongst a family containing cases of exophthalmic goitre and cretinism, one member was found to be a deafmute. From these reports there can be but little doubt that the same causes which produce an excessive proportion of deaf-mutes in any locality also tend to produce an abnormal amount of goitre and cretinism.

245. Association of deaf-mutism, cretinism and goitre with watersupply.—The association of these diseases with the water of certain rivers is not quite so certain. In the Myitkyina District goitre is associated with the drinking water and with the consumption of powdered lime by the Kachins. The three diseases are also reported to be more common among the Kachins, the Tsis, the Lashis and the Marus, who inhabit the lower valleys, than among the Lisus or Yawyins who live at a higher elevation. But although the question was definitely asked, there is nothing to shew any association with the course of any particular river. The depth of the valley of residence and the degree of impregnation of the drinking water with foreign matter appear to be the principal causes to which the diseases are attributed. The Superintendent, Chin Hills, directly negatives the suggestion that deaf-mutism might follow the course of certain The Deputy Commissioner, Bhamo, states that there does not seem to be ociation with any particular river. The Superintendent, Northern Shan any association with any particular river. States, finds that the circles in which deaf-mutism is most prevalent are drained by the Namtu, Nam Nim and the Nam Mwe Rivers. In the valleys of the twolatter rivers, goitre is very noticeable. In the case of the Namtu, goitre is scarce in the broad valley of the main stream, where owing to the foulness of the water

Deaf-mutsim b	y decennion of the pe	al age period opulation.	ls per
Age.	Males.	Females.	Total.
0-10	87	65	152
10-20	223	180	403
20-30	310	194	404
30-40	139	134	273
4050	120	115	<sup>2</sup> 35
50-60	125	113	238
60 and over	81	53	134

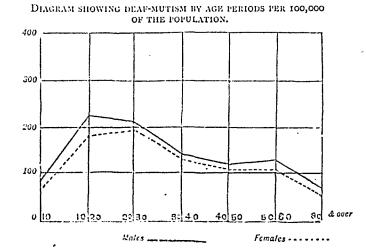
the villagers use water from wells; but it is prevalent in the high villages where water is taken from the hill streams feeding the main river. Thus while it is obvious that the series of diseases is intimately connected with the local water-supply, it is only in the Northern Shan States that they can be traced to the use of water from any particular streams.

246. Age and sex distribution of deaf-mutism.—As in the case of leprosy, the proportion of deaf-mutism among females

remains below that of males throughout the entire series of age periods, whereas for insanity and blindness the proportions for females after a certain age

rise above those for males. female lepers is probably due to concealment. contradistinction to infirmities of insanity and leprosy which attain their maximum proportions in the later period of middle age, and with bliodness which attains its maximum in old age, deaf-mutism its maximum during early life. Among males its maximum is reached during the age period 10 to 20 when 223 per hundred thousand of the total population are

rise above those for males. The lower proportion among females in the case of deaf-mutism is probably a genuine phenomenon, whereas the low proportion of



afflicted. Among females it does not attain its maximum till the period 20 to 30 when there are 194 female deaf-mutes per hundred thousand of the population. The joint proportions are approximately the same for the two age periods, being 403 and 404 per hundred thousand from 10 to 20 and from 20 to 30 respectively. From this later age period the proportions decline with advancing age, a slight contrary movement being apparent among the males at the age period 50 to 60. The conclusion to be drawn from the decline is that the mortality among deafuntes is greater than the mortality among the general population, the survivors forming a decreasing proportion of the population at the later ages.

247. Racial proportions of deaf-mutism.—The prevalence of deafmutism among the Kachins is so markedly in excess of that of any other race in

the province that it would seem to be a peculiarly racial infirmity. It is however undoubted that social practices and locality have considerable influence quite apart from The localities in which the Kachins dwell, the valleys and the steep hillsides of the northern and north-eastern frontier of the province, contain all the conditions favouring the prevalence of this and other cognate diseases. Apart from locality, mention has already been made of the Kachin practice of consuming large quantitles of lime in powdered form. But it is to the sexual and marital customs of the Kachins that local officers attribute their liability to this and to kindred diseases. Mr. Lewisohn, Deputy Commissioner, Bhamo, states that the only theory he can

Race.		Total.	Males.	Females
Kachin	•••	1,004	517	487
Kadu	•••	205	125	170
Chin		252	141	111
Wa-Palaung	••	215 /	97	811
Shan		150	<i>7</i> 9	71
Chinese	•••	148	75	73
Intha		8o j	41	36
Danu	•••	79	49	30
Taungthu	•••	59	i,	45
Burmese		ξο	27	23
Karen	•••	40	25	. 15
Talaing		35	24	11
Taungyo		30	15	15
Arakanese		29	16	: 13

advance is that deaf-mutism may be due to excessive interbreeding, which is very common because of the smallness of the ordinary Kachin village and its distance from other villages. Mr. Hertz, Deputy Commissioner, Myitkyina, is of a similar opinion as will be seen from the following extract from his report on the subject.

"As regards the two latter diseases (cretinism and deaf-mutism) I am inclined to think that hereditary causes have a great deal to do with their prevalence. By the rules of morality in force among the Kachins great freedom is allowed before marriage to the young of both sexes, and they may consort more or less as they please, as long as they avoid the forbidden degrees of consanguinity. These degrees do not however forbid the consorting of a man with the daughter of his mother's brother, so that the marriage of first cousins is possible. The result is that boys and girls indulge in sexual intercourse as soon as they obtain puberty, and, the birth of a bastard throwing no blot on the moral claration of the woman, a large percentage of children are born of immature parents, who therefore may have been the issue of the same kind of union."

In the same connection Mr. Thornton, Superintendent, Northern Shan States, reports concerning the circles of high prevalence of deaf-mutism :-

"In all these circles Kachins, Shans, Palaungs, Chinese and Lishaws appear to suffer equally from goitre, though the Kachins are the more degraded as might be expected from the greater immorality, or rather want of morality, among the Kachin women before marriage."

Thus the extremely lax morality of the Kachins, although perhaps not the primary cause of the remarkable proportion of deaf-mutism among them appears to be a contributory cause and to lead to a generally low standard of general health, which readily develops into deaf-mutism and other cognate diseases in a favourable environment. The Kadus are a small community which from their insignificance managed to evade special enquiry in this respect. They are a hybrid race having both Chins and Kachins among their progenitors. not seem to be an accident that they are placed between these two races in the order of prevalence of this infirmity. Among the Chins, deaf-mutism is associated by the local authorities with insanity and both are in turn considered to be the result of interbreeding. The high proportions of deaf-mutism among the Was, the Palaungs, the Shans and the Chinese may be considered in connection with Mr. Thornton's report that in certain circles Kachins, Shans, Palaungs, Chinese and Lishaws appear to suffer equally from goitre. This suggests that goitre and consequently the deaf-mutism with which it is associated is a question of locality rather than of race.

#### BLINDNESS.

248. Blindness.—The numbers suffering from blindness in, common with those of the remaining infirmitios recorded, shew a considerable increase over the

Blindness (Actual Numbers).									
Years.	Males.	Females.							
1901 1901	6,681 5,556 8,066	8,553 5,966 8,869							

figures for 1901, and a less marked increase over the figures for 1891. The difference between the figures for 1901 and 1911 is not evenly distributed throughout the province, being marked in the Northern Hill Districts and the Specially Administered Territories, and much less distinct in the remaining three natural divisions of the province. In 1901 Mr. Lowis drew

> (corresponding with the Northern Hill Districts and the Specially Administered

> the ratios are reversed. The amount of blindness per hundred thousand of the population is 203 in the Central Basin against 217 in the Northern Hill Districts and 235 in the Specially Administered Territories. This reversal is due to the

But for the current census

special attention to the fact that the ratios of blindness for each sex in the Upper Burma dry division (corresponding with the Central Basin) were much greater than in the Upper Burma wet division

Territories).

Blindness per 100,000 population	by Natural	Divisions 191
Divisions.	Males.	Females
Province	67	73
Central Basin	91	112
Deltaic Plains	37	31
Northern Hill Districts	105	112
Coast Ranges	28	20
Specially Administered Territories.	} 108	127

fact that infirmities in 1901 were not fully recorded in the Northern Hill Districts and the Specially Administered Territories.

Proportional blindness in 19 populatio	or and 191 n.	1 per 100,000
Division.	1911.	L 1901
Province	140	112
Central Basin	203	197
Deltaic Plains	68	59
Northern Hill Districts	217	138
Coast Ranges	48	32
Specially Administered Territories.	} 235	85

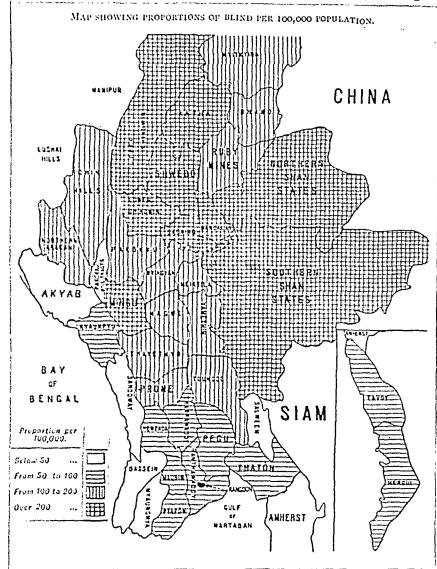
The records for the current census do not appear to substantiate the conclusions previously drawn as to the predominating influence of the dryness of the district and the glare of the sun, on the amount of blindness. It is true that the drier districts of the Central Basin have much higher proportions of blindness than those of the Deltaic Plains or the Coast Ranges with their abundant rainfall. But these in their turn are exceeded by the proportions for the Northern Hill Districts and the Specially Administered Territories, with distinctly higher rainfalls

than are experienced in the Central Basin. Mr. Lowis mentions two main causes of blindness in Burma, the glare of the sun, and small-pox. To these, a third ophthalmia, should be added. To a resident of Lower Burma, the prevalence of this disease in the dry zone districts of Upper Burma is most noticeable. It is to tins cause that the higher proportion of blindness in the Northern Hill Districts

and Specially Administered Territories is probably due.

249. Local distribution of blindness.—The appearance of the map designed to show the prevalence of blindness suggests that there are three zones of differing intensity running generally parallel with the coast line. The lowest proportion of blindness is to be found in the coast and delta districts, where the proportion is less than 100 per hundred thousand inhabitants generally, falling to

less than hundred thousand on the Arakan and Tenasserim coasts. The intermediate zone is a diagonal stretch of country of fairly unibreadth form extending from the Chin Hills in the north-west to the Toungeo district in the south-east. this the proportion of blindness lies between and 200 per hundred thousand, the single exception Minbu being which just slightly exceeds the upper limit with a proportion of 202 per hundred thousand. The third zone includes the



remaining portion of the province, three districts only, Myitkyina, Bhamo and the Ruby Mines, falling below the proportion of blindness of 200 per hundred thousand of the inhabitants. It is not suggested that the general direction of the zones, with their lines of demarcation parallel with the sea coast, is anything more than a coincidence, but it affords the best method of explaining the general distribution of the prevalence of blindness over the province. In particular it brings to notice the striking fact that the districts of Pakôkku, Myingyan and Magwe in the heart of the dry zone of the province do not constitute the region of maximum intensity.

250. Age and sex distribution of blindness.—Of the four infirmities recorded, blindness is the only one in which women are afflicted to a greater

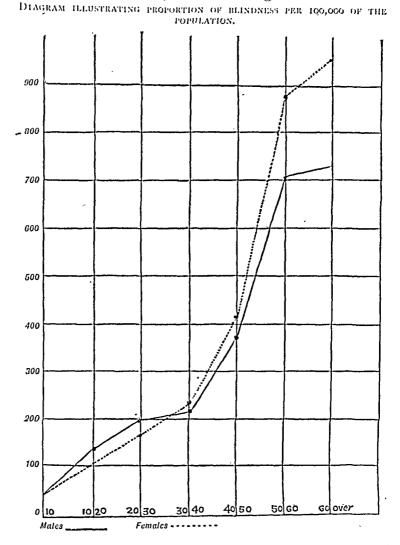
extent than men. An analysis by age periods suggests that in the earlier ages males suffer more from this infirmity than females; but at about thirty years of age the proportion of blind females to the total population becomes greater than that of males, and continues throughout all succeeding age periods at an increasingly high level. It is probable that the large amount of time spent by women in domestic labour, in dark and badly ventilated houses, with a smoke-laden atmosphere, is the cause of their increasing propensity

Blindness by decennial age periods per 100,000 of the population.												
	Males.	Females.										
	55	43										
•••	133	101										
	173	166										
•••	212	232										
•••	392	410										
•••	701	862										
•••	727	969										
		o of the population										

to blindness at the higher

ages. It is natural that the age distribution of blindness should differ greatly from that of the other recorded infirmities. Congenital deaf-mutism is essentially an affliction of the earlier periods of life. The large mortality among the leprous and the insane prevent a large proportion of the persons suffering from these infirmities

from attaining an advanced age. But blindness infliction peculiarly affecting old age. The marginal diagram indicates that among both males and females it advances with increasing age from infancy till the age of thirty at but a moderate rate, Between thirty forty there 15 marked increase in the proportions for The both sexes. increase becomes still more rapid between the ages of fifty and sixty. sixty the increase in the proportions begins to moderate, the mortality among the blind over sixty years of age almost balancing the number of persons on whom the affliction



251. Racial proportions of blindness.—The marginal statement gives in order of prevalence the proportions of blindness recorded among the more import-

Racial propor	tion	of blindnes populati		ooo of the
Race.		Total.	Males.	Females.
Kadu	•••	536	241	295
	•••	305	152	153
Intha		245	97	148
Kachin	٠	234	1 39	95
Wa-Palaung		196		105
Danu		191	91 82	109
Burmese	•••	153	75	7 <b>8</b>
Taungyo	•••	127	56	71
Taungthu	•••	97	26	71
Chin _	٠.,	88	44	44
Chinese	• • •	48	28	20
Karen		43	21	22
Talaing		34	22	12
Arakanese	•••	30	20	01

ant races of the province. The Chins so pre-eminent in the remaining infirmities have a low proportion of blindness. are a hybrid community Kadus 11,196 persons only, and their high proportions are calculated from a recorded affliction of 27 males and 33 females only. The prevalence of blindness among the Shans, the Kachins, the Wa-Palaungs and the Danus suggests that the influence of the glare of the sun in the dry zone is not the pre-potent cause of a high ratio of blindness. Among the Inthas it is possible that the glare of the sun or the water is a cause of a high prevalence of blindness among a race of lake-dwellers.

#### LEPROSY.

252. Leprosy.—The actual number of lepers, as in the case of the sufferers from other infirmities, is considerably greater than in 1901, and but moderately greater than in 1891. The proportion of lepers to the total population is however much smaller than in 1891, as will be seen by a reference to the marginal statement and diagram illustrating paragraph 233 above. Omitting the enumeration for 1901, for which the figures were unduly depressed, there has been a decrease

233

in the proportion of lepers since 1891 from 87 (61 males and 26 females) to 58 (40 males and 18 females) per hundred thousand of the population. There is a greater uniformity in the distribution of this disease over the various divisions

of the province than is to be found for the remaining infirmities. But if individual districts are considered, the proportions have an extremely wide range of variation, from 6 per hundred thousand in the Sandoway District to 198 per hundred thousand in the Northern Arakan District of the same natural division. The general distribution of leprosy by districts appears to follow no ascertainable rule.

Leprosy (Actual Numbers).								
Year.	Males.	Females.						
1891	4,543	1,921						
1001	-2,940	1,250						
1911	4,842	2,196						

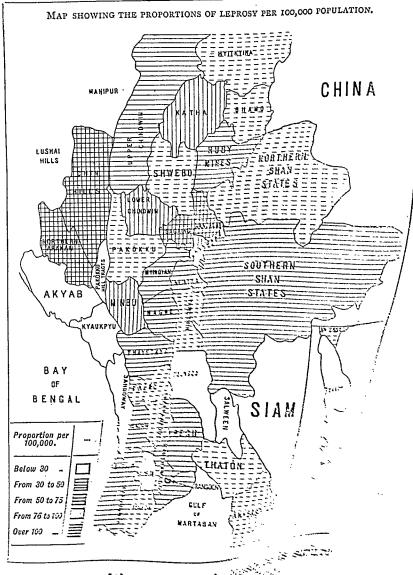
The most marked characteristic of the map showing the distribution of leprosy is the low proportion of the five sea-coast districts Akyab, Kyaukpyu, Sando-

way, Tavoy and Mergui. This would appear to effectively dispose of the theory of Dr. Hutchinson that leprosy is caused by a bacillus introduced into the stomach by means of badly cured fish eaten in a state of partial decomposition and not sufficiently cooked. Dr. Hutchinson himself however anticipated the possibility of such conclusions being drawn and contended that as a very small quantity of tainted fish may suffice to introduce the bacillus and as a long period

Leprosy per 100,000 Divisio	population by ons 1911.	Natural
Divisions.	Males.	Females.
Province	40	18
Central Basin	+7	24
Deltaic Plains .	41	14
Northern Hill	36	21
Districts.	1	• • •
Coast Ranges	16	2
Specially Adminis-	44	27
tered Territories.		

is necessary before its results will be observed, it is not surprising that in India leprosy is often found in regions at a distance from rivers and seas and where

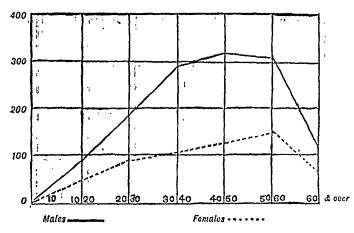
comparatively fish little consumed. The comparative absence of leprosy coast districts would appear be stronger arguagainst ment the theory, than its presence in regions remote from seas and rivers. However the theory has not yet succeeded in gereceiving neral accepta-Apart tion. from the comparative immunity of the coast districts leprosy from no rule for its general distribution by locality can be formulated. cannot be said to bemore prevalent in wet districts than in dry districts



or vice versa, nor does the country or the appear to have any appearable effect on the prevalence.

253. Sex and age distribution of leprosy.—A reference to the diagram illustrating paragraph 233 above will indicate that the excess of males afflicted is greater in the case of leprosy than in any of the remaining infirmities recorded. There does not appear to be any *à priori* reason why males should suffer more than women from leprosy, and it is highly probable that the concealment of this disease

DIAGRAM ILLUSTRATING THE PROPORTION OF LEPERS PER 100,000 OF THE POPULATION BY AGE PERIODS.



among females is one cause of the low proportion of female leprosy recorded. The disease is so abhorred that it is concealed as long aspossible, and both motives for, and the possibilities of, concealment are greater for women than for Up till the age of fifty, men. the proportions of leprosy among males increase with each succeeding age period they. more rapidly than increase among females. The proportions attain maximum among males at

the age period 40 to 50, when there are 317 males per hundred thousand of the total population afflicted with this disease. They do not attain their maximum

Leprosy by decennial age periods per 100,000 of the population.											
Age.		Males.	Females.								
o—ro 10—20 20—30 30—40 40—50 50—60 60 and over	•••	7 84 194 288 317 301 116	5 49 96 117 135 176 64								

among women till the age period 50 to 60, when there are 176 female lepers per hundred thousand of the population. The proportions commence to decline earlier in the case of males and after the age period 50 and 60, the decline for males is more rapid than for females. The fact that the curves illustrating the respective proportions of male and female leprosy tend to approach each other at advanced age, indicates that there is concealment of the disease among women during the earlier and middle periods of life, but that as old age

approaches the necessity for concealment is no longer felt.

254. Racial proportions of leprosy.—It is noticeable that the Kadus, the Chins, and the Inthas occupy the first positions in the marginal statement

Racial proportions of leprosy per 100,000 of the population Race. Total. Males Females. Kadu 304 125 76 34 46 38 155 231 124 Intha ... 90 76 Chin ... Taungyo I 22 ••• 43 46 Shan 67 Burmese 21 . . . 31 22 Karen 41 10 Kachin 37 15 32 27 27 Chinese 31 21 I ••• 16 Talaing ... Wa-Palaung 13 18 ... 457 Taungthu ٠.. 23 8 Danu Arakanese

the order of prevalence of shewing These three races also shew leprosy. pre-eminence unenviable in the infirmities recorded. remaining Kachins, who are high up in the scale for the remaining infirmities, do not appear to be afflicted with leprosy to The Taungyos of the any great extent. Shan States and the Shans themselves are the only other races having proportions of persons afflicted with leprosy higher than those of the Burmese or of province as a whole, degree of prevalence of leprosy among the Inthas a tribe of lake dwellers of

Burmese race, seems to support the theory of Dr. Hutchinson that leprosy is caused by the consumption of partly cooked and badly cured fish

255. Institutions for the treatment of Leprosy.—The results of the latest researches, into the causes and methods of treatment of leprosy are contained in a statement issued by the British and Colonial delegates to the International Conference on Leprosy at Bergen in 1909, to the following effect:—

"(1) Leprosy is spread by direct and indirect contagion from persons suffering from the disease. The possibility that indirect contagion may be effected by fleas, bugs, lice, the itch parasite, etc., has to be borne in mind. Leprosy is most

LEPROSY.

prevalent under conditions of personal and domestic uncleanliness and overcrowding, especially where there is close and protracted association between the leprous and non-leprous.

(2) Leprosy is not due to the eating of any particular food, such as fish.

- (3) There is no evidence that leprosy is hereditary; the occurrence of several cases in a single family is due to contagion.
- (4) In leprosy an interval of years may elapse between infection and the first recognised appearance of disease. It is a disease of long duration, though some of its symptoms may be quiescent for a considerable period and then recur.

(5) The danger of infection from leprous persons is greater when there is discharge

from mucous membranes or from ulcerated surfaces.

(6) Compulsory notification of every case of leprosy should be enforced.

(7) The most important administrative measure is to separate the leprous from the non-leprous by segregation in settlements or asylums.

(8) In settlements, home life may be permitted under regulation by the responsible

authorities.

(9) The preceding recommendations, if carried out will provide the most efficient means of mitigating the leper's suffering and of assisting in his recovery, and at the same time will produce a reduction and ultimate extinction of the disease.

It is therefore of importance to ascertain the extent to which segregation, described as the most important administrative measure in connection with the treatment of leprosy has been effected.

There are four institutions for the treatment of leprosy in the province of Burma

as follows:-

(i) St. John's Leper Asylum, Mandalay, administered by the Catholic Mission in Upper Burma. It maintains an average of 230 inmates

(ii) The Home for Lepers, Mandalay, founded in 1890 by the "Mission to Lepers in India and the East", and managed by the English Wesleyan Mission. It maintains a daily average of about 160 inmates.

(iii) Kemmendaing Leper Asylum, Rangoon, founded by the Catholic Mission in Southern Burma, and managed by the Sisters Franciscan Missionaries of Mary. It has accommodation for over 100 inmates.

(iv) Moulmein Leper Asylum, founded in 1899 by the American Baptist

Mission. It has accommodation for 50 inmates.

These have been assisted by contributions from Government and local funds to the following extent during the past decade:—

Asylum.	Station.	Maint of le			Sala	nies.	Buil	ding.	
Kemmendaing Leper Asylum	Mandalay	98,930 74,458	15 2 0	11 6 0	24,360 17,140	. o c	Rs. 34,877 4,000 35,425 500	10 0 0	- 1

It will be seen that the asylum accommodation is sufficient for about 540 patients only, whereas the total number of sufferers in the province is 7,038. Less than 8 per cent. of the lepers in the province can be segregated with the existing accommodation.

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE I.—Number afflicted per 100,000

				Insanc.								Dea
District and Natural Division		Male	e <b>.</b>			Fen	iale.			Ma	ile.	
	1911	1901	1891	1881	1911	1901	1891	1881	1911	1901	1891	1881
I	2	3	4	5	б	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
				İ							,	
Province	. 43	31	51	68	36	23	41	44	39	17	29	4:
l. Central Basin	32	34	56	68	20	32	59	53	25	19	33	40
	39	.33	45	71	20	19	31	56	20	10	31	4
D-1-01 1	38	32 48	44 59	62	23 35	28 50	31 66	8	27 46	7	10 50	4
N. F. 1	64	44	75		34	41	101		28	27	44	
Magwe	23	41	63	•••	19	42	72		26	30	37	
	35	26	62	•••	35	22	54	•••	15	9	34	
0	22	26 40	27 60	•••	33	24 42	77	•••	27 25	19 16	33	
*	37	28	80	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	32	28	, 8o	•••	26	20	42	
Kyauksè	11	37	61		46	23	54	•••	21	12	28	
	23	10 26	55		27	24	61	•••	16	10	29	10
	20	37	53 47	•••	23 19	39	55 62	•••	19	25	39	
II. Deltaio Clains	33	32	46	57	17	12	21	35	20	12	23	a
Rangoon	16r	153	141	148	33	27	15	38	14	9	10	3
Hanthawaddy	22	20	21	62	15	10	28	40	25 17	11	30	4
Tharrawaddy Pegu	17	24 11	51 45	42	16	6	17	27	14	9	25	
Bassein	21	20	49	87	14	9	26	59	12	12	32	4
Henzada	26	32	33	37	17	17	23	30	23	16	17	3
Myaungmya	20	24	`}		10	10	. } 36	•••	14	2 15	<b>}</b> 43	•
Ma-ubin Pyapôn	27	<b>{</b> 51	\ 5 <sup>2</sup>		23	18	\ 3°		26	21	) 43	
Pyapon Thatôn	17	8	ر 30	44	18	6	17	24	24	8	18	2
Toungoo	30	20	34	20	23	13	22	22	32	14	28	4
III. Northern Hill Distri	icts 65	34	38		68	37	39		122	37	85	
Bhamo	] 36	23	45		54	20	48		236	74	33	
Myitkyina	92	18			74 38				271	13	•••	"
Katha	35	30	2.4	•••		28	22	•••	30	18	25 23	
Ruby Mines Upper Chindwin	70	63	18	***	110	80			125	58	48	::
IV. Coast Ranges	38	25	52	89	28	14	35	56	27	11	26	1
Akyab /	43	28	53	79	31	15	37	45	25 18	16	32	
Northern Arakan	58		130	55	72	73	55 35	76 60	27	24 10	13	6
Kyaukpyu Sandoway	5r	32	54	107	27	16	, 38	75	33	II	25	5
Salween	30	5	29	100	30	5	51	77	32	II	45	7
Amherst	26	17	55	92	19	7	32	65	2.4	7 4	25	7 2
Tavoy Mergui	39	17	37 43	60 80	37	13 8	35	51 58	30	9	23	3
V. Specially Admin tered Territories.	nis- 102	27			105	27			108	19		
Nouthorn Class Case	. 0-				0.5	25			177	39		
Northern Shan State Southern Shan State	s 82 s 47	1			75 52	<sup>25</sup>			58	9		
Chin Hills	593				619	170		•••	223	45		

Note-(i) The corrected proportions of insane for Rangoon for 1911 after deducting the number of insane in the Asylum born outside Rangoon are Males 25, Females 11.

of the population at each of the last four Censuses.

Mute.			. ~	,,,,,			Bli	nd.				Leper.							•	
	Female.				Male.				Female.				Male.				Females.			
1911	1991	1891	1831	1911	1901	1891	1831	1911	1901	1891	1881	1911	1901	ıSgı	1881	1911	1901	1891	1881	
14	15	16	17	ıs	19	20	31	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	
32	11	23	24	67	54	89	88	73	58	113	83	40	29	61,	58	18	12	26	16	
20	15	31	24	91 ;	89	134	115	112	108	190	161	47	39	72	46	24	19	37	15	
16 17 40 18 19 22 13 10 14 13	8 7 30 18 26 8 9 12 16 11 11	26 17 43 37 24 33 17 35 48 22 33 30 35	24 25	54 70 91 88 55 99 129 141 175 70 63	58 40 128 89 101 103 77 100 10) 103 48 62	79 58 156 157 122 163 73 193 211 1345 120	115	55 71 106 114 87 117 141 174 197 175 95 91 79	47 687 1137 127 92 83 114 159 95 76	95 91 214 233 171 212 103 288 338 144 295 137 229	146	34 47 23 68 38 77 31 92 64 61 36 28 39	38 24 31 50 45 22 41 21 22 19	44 56 82 78 99 30 592 65 48	45 48 	14 15 30 20 45 18 58 33 18 18	11 14 19 28 27 21 14 29 20 14 15	12 15 31 42 35 61 61 54 26 41 18 56		
13	3	17	22	37	32	62	87	31	27	49	80	41	32	67	77	14	10	18	18	
6 17 11 9 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10	45734873 48	5 9 24 17 16 18 37	18 17 20 130 22 14	20 39 40 22 43 24 39 30	24 43 43 37 14 40 39 55	21 28 61 72 49 53 91 43	77 122 76  90 77 	14 30 44 30 20 37 23 36 21	18 31 19 45 40 32 55 3		57 85 77 87 88 	40 50 23 53 37 50 45 71 35 25	35 30 22 23 32 41 53 61	27 47 53 108 98 54 163 28	41 113 50  125 50 	5 11 12 50 13 25 57	8 10 7 9 15 10 15 5 5	9 11 14 27 17 53 8	16 26 11 33 15	

Subsidiary Table II.—Distribution of the infirm by age per 10,000 of each sex.

				_	Insan	e <b>.</b>		~		۰			Deaf-	mute.			
Age		! !	Male.				Fe	male.			M	lale.	•	Female.			······································
		1911.	1901.	1891.	1881.	1911.	1901.	1891.	1881,	1911.	1901.	1891.	1881.	1911.	1901.	1891.	1881.
1		2	3	4	. 5	6	7	S	.9	10	11	12	13	1.4	.15	16	17
		;															
' o—5	•••	125	115	63	, 53	167	130	84	75	368	341	312	237	384	351	354	322
5—10	•••	322	274	198	216	383	277	224	281	1,082	854	1,005	838	960	854	952	824
ĭo-15	•••	617	557	567	406	605	637	479	541	1,429	1,294	1,335	922	1,3.8	1,376	1,072	1,026
15-20	•••	1,019	938	914	1,174	894	949	806	966	1,482	1,375	1,088	1,355	1,528	1,088	878	1,253
20-25	•••	1,278	1,300	1,181	2	1,153	1,027	997	} 1,884	15414	1,161	1,167		1,748	971	1,066	2,088
25—30		1,153	1,175	1,170	} 2,237	981	923	920		932	733	753	2,032	801	710	718	5 2,000
30-35	•••	1,285	1,272	1,299	2	1,165	811,1	1,098		949	948	795	٠	905	`863	912	} 1,587
3540	•••	1,023	1,004	1,009	2,330	796	867	913	3,144	465	560	828	} 1,781	488	495	741	S 1,307
40-45	***	1,067	994	1,083	} 1,673	963	966	1,065	} 1,822	-56 <b>3</b>	607	461	} 1,187	490	773	644	}r,086
45-50	•••	5 <b>7</b> 5	601	585	<b>\</b>	679	624	719		241	428	423	} ',''	324	423	439	\\ \tag{1,000}
50-55	•••	- 563	119	653	} 1,024	676	8 <b>8</b> 8	`923	} i,246	283	526	428		300	53 <i>1</i>	479	} 955
55-60	•••	274	346	390	} 1,024	449	.381	418	§ 1,240	190	208	233	733	319	414	376	<b>5</b> 322
60 and 0	ver	699	813	888	887	1,089	1,213	1,354	1,041	602	965	1,172	915	522	1,151	1,369	859
r.,		}	ļ F	,			.,	٠,		. ]		,		<u>.</u>	{		

# Subsidiary Table II.—Distribution of the infirm by age per 10,000 of each sex.

					Blind	•							Lep	ers.			
Age.		Males					Female. Male.				Female.						
. , ,		1911.	1901.	1891.	1881.	1911.	1901.	1891.	1881.	1911.	1901.	1891.	1881.	1911.	1901.	1891.	1881.
1		18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33
0-5		162	249	269	142	148	173	133	99	23	112	33	40	55	184	52	' 6
5-10	•••	36 <b>7</b>	395	362	453	245	211	180	272	95	бі	77	164	159	120	٤3	31
1ó—15	•••	459	472	479	397	321	250	256	251	328	344	372	304	464	448	385	32
15-20	•••	550	459	<sup>-</sup> 439	572	375	285	285	378	704	714	722	717	874	872	942	1,017
20-25	•••	616	589	425	7 =	511	422	290	7	938	1,058	938	)	1,125	1,128	1,182	} 2,22
25-30	•••	521	474	. 389	973	423	375	293	<b>}</b> 590	1,179	1,245	1,101	} 1,837	1,066	960	1,078	\ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \
30-35	•••	634	580	513	} 1,138	540	476	396	7	1,458	1,449	1,248	}	1,229	1,200	1,229	} 2,17
35-40	•••	586	594	519	} 1,130	472	426	359	827	1,305	1,153	1,340	} 2,434	870	1,080	937	
40-45	•••	733	665	620	·	636	599	540	· · · · ·	1,140	1,099	1,279		911	888	1,119	} 1,82
45-50	· •	6)8	640	627	1,433	576	511	453	} 1,194	839	711	830	} <sup>2,33</sup> %	724	608	625	} ',0'.
50 <del>-</del> 55		822	864	783	2	766	810	824	7	762	809	1		824	880	791	} 94
55-60		697	651	665	1,753	861	677	757	3,126	393	429	423		· 592	448	458	ن ک
to and o	)¢:	3,155	. 3,363	3,910	3,139	4,126	4,785	5,234	4,263	836	816	856	188	6,107	1,184	1,114	1,104

Subsidiary Table III.—Number afflicted per 100,000 persons of each age period and Number of Females afflicted per 1,000 Males.

·	,		Numb	er afflict	ed per 1	00,000.			Number	of fema	iles afflic Males.	ted per
Age.	Insane.		Deaf-N	Iute.	Blir	nd.	Lep	ers.		Deaf		
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Insane.	Mute.	Blind.	Lepers.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
					-	, , ,		,				
0—5	8	9,	22	18	17.	16	I,	1	1,123	845	1,000	1,091
5—10	21	21	65	47	38	27	6	4	994	719	733	76 <b>1</b>
10-15	45	40	95.	77	52	43	22	15.	820	753	. 770	642
15-20	97	69	128	103	81	58	62	34	733	836	750	<sup>‡</sup> 563 .
20-25	127	97	127	129	94	87	86	47	754	1,00,1	911	544
25—30	114	90	83	65	79	79	Soı	49	711	698	. 893	410-
30-35	129	116	86	79	98	109	136	61	762	77,3	937	382
35—40	128	102	53.	55	114	123	152	56	631	850	886	302
40-45	153	128	73	57	162	172	151	61	754	707	954	362
45 - 50	122	138	47.	58	230	238.	166	74_	987	1,088	998	392
50-55	129	130	59	51	291	300	162	80	103	858	ì,024	491
55—60	104	144	66	6,2	410	562	139	96	1,371	933	1,359	684
60 and over	10.1	126	Sı	53	727	9,69	116	64	1,301	703	1,438	600
			1	١.								:
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Subsidiary Table IV.—Number afflicted per 100,000 of the population of fourteen selected races.

		Insane.		Deaf-Mutes.		Bli	nd•	Lep	ers.
Race.		Males.	Females.	Males-	Females,	Males-	Females.	Males.	Females.
									-
Province		43	36	39	32	67	73	40	18,
Burmese		3 <b>7</b> .	28	27	23	ຸ 75	78	46	21
Arakanese		36	24	16	13	20	10	2	4
Intha		85	93	44	36	97	148	155	76
Kadu	•••	9	170	125	170	241	295	179	125
Taungyo	•••	20	137	15	15	56	7,1	76	46
Danu	•••	41	27	49	30	82	109	8	7
Kachiņ	•••	108	125	51.7	487.	139	95	22	15,
Chịn	•••	321	315	141	iii	44	44	90	34
Shan _		68	61	<b>79</b> .	71	152	153	43	38,
Taungthu	•••	17	67.	14	45	26	71	18	5
Karen	•••	27	19	25	15	21	22	31	10
Talaing	•••	23	II	24.	11	22	12	21,	6
Wa-Palaung	•••	53	65	97	118	91	105	13	14
Chinese	•••	16	7.	75	73	28	20	31	r

#### CHAPTER XI.

### Caste, Tribe and Race.

#### CASTE AND INDIAN IMMIGRATION.

256. Caste, Tribe or Race.—In India, Caste is of outstanding importance as compared with Race, and indeed caste is the form which ethnical distinctions assume over the greater portion of the Indian Empire. But in Burma caste is relatively unimportant. It has no existence among the indigenous population, and it appears among the immigrant population in a form showing many signs of disintegration. Consequently it attains but a subordinate place in a branch of census enquiry devoted to ethnical classification. In the opinion of four generations of Census Superintendents in Burma the records of caste are both useless and inaccu-The claims of uniformity throughout a unified empire have succeeded in retaining caste as a subject of record in Burma, but in the course of tabulation it is treated as a matter of subsidiary importance. Tribal and racial divisions, in Burma matters of the utmost complexity, naturally take the place of a consideration of caste, and it is to an analysis of such divisions that the greater portion of this chapter will be devoted. Imperial Table XIII contains the data from which the material for the analysis is obtained, and Subsidiary Table I of this Chapter enables an estimate to be made in the magnitude of the various indigenous racial groups since the first census was undertaken in 1872. The gradual extension of census limits has been a more potent factor than natural movements in producing the variations exhibited. An attempt will be made in the course of the treatment of each individual tribe to attribute the degree of variation to each contributory cause.

257. Definitions of Caste.—According to Sir Herbert Risley's definition, a caste is said to be—

"A collection of families or groups of families bearing a common name, which usually denotes or is associated with a specific occupation; claiming common descent from a mythical ancestor, human or divine; and professing to follow the same traditional calling. A caste is almost invariably endogamous, in the sense that a member of the large circle denoted by the common name may not marry outside that circle. But within that circle there are usually a number of smaller circles, each of which is also endogamous. Thus it is not enough to say that a Brahman at the present day cannot marry any woman who is not a Brahman; his wife must not only be a Brahman, she must also belong to the same endogamous division of the Brahman caste."

Mr. Gait in his Census Report of 1901, in order to differentiate a caste from a sub-caste defines it in the following terms:—

"A caste is an endogamous group, or a collection of such groups, bearing a common name who, by reason of similarity of traditional occupation and reputed origin, are generally regarded, by those of their countrymen who are competent to give an opinion, as forming a single homogeneous community, the constituent parts of which are more nearly related to each other than they are to any other section of the society."

The three important constituents of a caste, according to both definitions, are the practice of endogamy, the association with a traditional occupation, and the belief in a common ancestry or origin. Whichever of the three criteria be adopted, it is apparent that the definition cannot be applied to the greater portion of the indigenous population of Burma. So far from the tribes and races of the province showing any general preference for associating in endogamous groups they are most catholic in their practice of intermarriage both with each other, and with immigrant races. The Karen tribes furnish the only instances of tribal endogamy but they are quite free from any of the other essentials of caste. So far from following any traditional occupation an individual will frequently pass through numerous changes

of occupation in the course of his career. Hereditary occupations in which a son naturally follows the occupation of his father are common, but there are no limitations or prohibitions which would bring the persons following any such occupations into a caste group. The belief in a common ancestry is frequently found among the more primitive tribes of the province, but they comprise but a small proportion of the total population. Wherever found, the belief has no connection with any idea of the nature of caste. So far as the people of Burma are concerned caste is an alien institution which has made no progress whatever among its indigenous inhabitants. Isolated instances of the elements, which combined, constitute the phenomenon of caste, may be found, but caste itself in its complete form is only to be found among immigrants from India.

258. Caste among Indian Immigrants.—But even among the Indian immigrant races, caste in Burma stands on a very different footing from caste in India. The very facts of leaving his native village and crossing the sea to a distant country have violated some of the essentials of the caste of the immigrant. arrival in Burma, he finds that his predecessors, instead of attempting to continue unimpaired their caste customs and traditions in their new environment, have treated them with neglect. There is no public opinion to bind him to the strict observance of his caste rules. There is nothing to prevent him from assuming with impunity a caste designation to which he would not be entitled in India. The economic basis of caste, serving to preserve a minimum standard of livelihood and to prevent unrestrained competition, in a country where population presses hardly upon the means of subsistence, are foun I to be hindrances in a country of scanty population where an opening is available to anybody astute enough to avail himself of it. The overwhelming preponderance of the male element among Indian immigrants is also a potent force in the disintegration of caste. In so far as caste depends on the observances and customs of every cay family life, it is impossible for the great majority of Indians in Burma. They either live in overcrowded barracks or lodging houses where facilities for caste ceremonial are lacking, or they intermarry with Burmese women who have no conception of the idea of caste, except that it is an artificial creation of meaningless forms and prejudices. The fundamental social and economic conditions for the preservation of the caste system do not exist in In a few restricted instances, among the members of an Indian regiment, among the Brahmans who are retained by the Burmese for consultation concerning religious, social and ceremonial functions, and even among homogeneous groups of Indian immigrants massed together in large towns, attempts at the preservation of caste are made with some success, in the face of great difficulties. attempts are the exception rather than the rule. In the great majority of instances the Indian in Burma either disregards his caste entirely; or nominally belonging to a caste, not necessarily his true one, allows himself great liberties in the observance

designation. His record has to be made in a language peculiarly unsuited to the transliteration of foreign sounds. He makes a phonetic representation of a name in a character notorious for its disregard of phonetic methods of spelling. Beyond a few of the more widely distributed and better known castes it is impossible to prepare and publish standard transliterations of caste names. The amount of work entailed in such a task would be disproportionately beyond the utility of its resulting advantage. In due course, the caste names as recorded in Burmese have to be transliterated again into English by a different staff from that which made the original record. In the Bengal Census Report for 1901 it is stated that caste names are often spelt so similarly that it is almost impossible to distinguish between them. If this is the case where caste is a familiar phenomenon, and where the names are recorded directly in the vernacular, the difficulties in Burma, where caste is an alien institution with foreign designations, can be faintly estimated. The final results are obtained after two doubtful transliterations of an extremely doubtful set of original statements.

260. Treatment of Caste in previous and present Census Reports.— In 1881 no attempt was made to prepare a return for caste in Burma. Imperial Form XII prescribed for the return of caste was submitted without any entries as it was considered impossible with Burmese enumerators to attempt to record Hindu castes or Mahomedan tribes. In 1891 the question of the return of caste was left open until the Census Commissioner and Census Superintendent could consult together. It was finally determined to attempt a record of caste. In paragraphs 226 and 227 of the Census Report of 1901, Mr. Eales discussed the question of a caste record in Burma. He considered such a record to be of very doubtful value and gave his opinion that it was more than probable that a record of caste would not again be attempted at another Census. However, when the question was again considered in 1900, it was determined that it was necessary for Burma to conform with the practice prescribed for the rest of India and to do the best with the material available. In paragraphs 156 and 157 of his report, Mr. Lowis dwells at great length on the difficulty of recording caste in Burma and on the possibility of misleading answers and errors in transliteration. He concludes his discussion in the following terms:-

"I may seem to have dwelt at somewhat undue length on this aspect of the caste returns in Burma. No one, it may be said, is likely to place any great reliance on the caste figures collected in Burma. That this has been the case in the past is, no doubt, true. I submit, however, that since the 1891 Census the body of caste folk in the province has increased so largely and has now reached so substantial a figure, that, unless some disclaimer such as the above is made, the public may be moved to think that the familiarity with and knowledge of caste has grown to an extent proportionate to the growth of the Hindu population, and to treat the date with the same respect as that with which they treat the returns compiled for castes in their locality or origin. With the assurance that if they do so they are domed to disappointment, I pass on to the consideration of the castes that are found in Burma."

seem as if there had been concerted action on their part to refuse to give their correct caste designation. A very large number of the members of this caste were entered at the current census as Christians. Another instance both of the power of suggestion and of the unreliability of the caste returns is contained in the figures for the Sudra caste for the years 1901 and 1911. In 1901 the Sudra caste was chosen to be entered in the specimen schedule issued to enumerators as a guide to the method of making the various entries of the Census Record. The number of entries for this caste then totalled 49.421. In 1911, the Sudra caste was omitted from the specimen schedule and other castes substituted, the total number recorded for the caste tell to 26.800. This variation in the figures, so contrary to any probable variation in the facts they purport to represent, indicates the nature of the influences which affect the figures for caste in the census returns, and the necessity of the warning issued by Mr. Lowis against placing too much reliance on the figures for the separate castes in Burma.

Another feature in the record for easte is the remarkable increase in the numbers of Hindus who gave no easte return whatever. In 1901, 58,073 Hindus tailed to give their easte. This number has now isen to 99,710. The great majority of these entries simply consisted of the word "Hindu." The next in numerical order were blank entries the knowledge that they referred to Hindus being obtained from the column relating to religion. Despite emphatic warnings in the instructions issued, such names as Madrassi, Dengali, Hindustani, Tamil and Telugu were repeatedly entered in the column for easte. The fact that out of a total of 389,079 Hindus in the province, 99,740 failed to give any clear indication as to their easte is in itself a fact which destroys confidence in the record. It may be that the default is in the commerator, rather than in the person enumerated but a classification, in which over a quarter of the items to be classified are indeterminate, is of very little value, whatever may be the cause of the failure to obtain more definite results.

262. Figures for eleven Hindu Castes in Burma.—The numbers recorded for the eleven most important Hindu Castes in Burma are given in a marginal

statement. It is probable that the contrary movements of the Chatri and Chetty castes are due to a confusion in the entries of the two castes respectively, but it is impossible to tell whether the confusion was more marked in 1901 than in 1911. The decrease in the number of Manipuris is partly due to their ready assimilation with the Burmese and partly to an omission to treat Manupuri as a caste name. The name of the Palli caste is one

Çar	Castra			tent.	lactraise er Decrease.		
-		- ,		-		and the same and	
Brahman			21,170	15,722	4.	5,248	
Chatti		1	10,74:	43(4)(4)		2,512	
Charty			14,300	0,508	÷	7,858	
हिन्दुधा			14 904	11,:14	-#-	3.750	
Mala	••	.,.	21,243	13,511	` <b>+</b>	2,720	
Manqaii			3.353	11,132		7,779	
Padis schi			11,503	5,517	+	5.991	
Palli		[	5.561	13,250	• •	7,389	
So des	•••	]	30,300	43.421		22,015	
Urica			201,484	5.035	+	5,370	
Veltala	• ·		6,012	0,000	-	48	
**							
3 :	4.1	• • • •	115/911	150.335		9,394	

readily leading itself to confusion with that of other castes. The difficulties of obtaining a correct record of this group were explained at length by Mr. Lowis in paragraph 157 of his report. The decline in the entries for Sudras is due principally to the fact that Sudra was the caste chosen in the specimen schedules for 1901 and was omitted in the schedules for 1911. Where the possibilities of error in the original record are so great the power of suggestion exercised by the choice of a specimen has peculiar opportunities for operation. In considering these figures, I can only repeat the warnings of several generations of Census Superintendents in Burma. The ignorance of the fundamental conception of caste is so great, and the possibilities of error in the original statement in the original record, and in the processes of transliteration and compilation, are so wide, that the results are not to be treated as possessing any degree of accuracy. Of far greater utility and of far greater reliability are the figures for the Hindu castes as a whole. The accurate recognition of Hindu subdivisions is beyond the capacity of the census machinery of the province, but a high degree of accuracy can be assigned to the figures of the total Hindu community. The ethnical significance of easte distribution is but slight. No caste of itself is of such outstanding importance that it is likely to leave any permanent mark on the races of the province. But the total effect of all castes combined cannot be ignored as being ethnographically unimportant. question of extreme importance to the future development of the province. It is a

matter for congratulation that where the figures are inaccurate they are from a provincial point of view ethnically insignificant, and that where their significance is of great importance their accuracy attains a higher degree of reliability,

263. Hindu Castes.—The total number of the members of the Hindu community in Burma has increased by 104,195 to a total of 389,679, this representing

	1911,	1901.	Increase or Decrease,				
	.5	130	Actual.	Per cent.			
City of Rangoen Hanthawaddy Pegu Amherst	108,350 57,137 34,350 23,864	82,994 39,529 18,602 25,348	+ 25,356 + 17,668 + 15,748 - 1,484	+ 3,22 + 41,24 + 5,82			
Total (four Districts) Rest of Burma	223,701 165,978	166,473	+ 57,228 + 40,967	+ 34'37 + 39'46			
Provincial Total	389,679	285,484	+ 104,193	+ 3549			

36.49 per cent. for the decade. The distribution of the Hindu immigrants over the province is most unequal. It will Le seen that 223,701 or 57 per cent. of the total are located in four districts, the remainder being spread over 33 districts and four terri-

tories under special administration. But it is difficult to exhibit the true distribution of the Hindu population by district figures. They congregate mainly in the cities and

Percentage of Hindus to total population.									
Percentage.									
3,38									
3.31									

towns of the province, and in the larger villages on the railway system and on the banks of the Irrawaddy. Apart from a few districts in the delta Hindu immigration has made no impression on the rural population of the province. The Hindu is conspicuous in Burma because he is in evidence on all the main routes of communication. The actual increase is trifling if the vast extent of immigration is considered. Of the total population of the province the various Hindu castes form but a small and not rapidly increasing proportion, having advanced from 2.28 per cent. to 3.21 per cent. in the past twenty years. The general question of the effect of Hindu immigration on the ethnical character

of the country will be considered in connection with the wider problem of Indian mmigration generally.

264. Musalman Tribes.—Just as the Hindu castes are congregated unduly in four districts, so the majority of the members of the Musalman tribes are to be

		1901.	Increase.			
	1911.	1901.	Actual.	Per cent.		
Akyab City of Rangoon	178,647 54,390	154,887 42,873	23,760 11,517	26.86 12.34		
Total (two Districts) Rest of Burma	233,037 184,253	197,760 133,538	35,277 50,715	17°83 37'97		
Provincial Total	417,290	331,298	85,992	25.82		

found in the two districts of Akyab and Rangoon, which contain 56 per cent. of the Musalmans of the province. In Akyab they are indigenous and enter largely into agricultural occupations. But in the remaining districts of the province they are principally an urban population en-gaged in industrial and

They form a larger, more united and more influential body commercial pursuits. than the aggregation of Hindu castes to be found in Burma, but their increase

Percentage of Musalmans to total population.								
Year.	Percentage.							
1911	3'33 3'28 3'47							

In twenty years they have advanced from 3.33 is less rapid. per cent, to 3.47 per cent, of the total population. The apparent set back in the proportion between 1891 and 1901 was due to the inclusion within census limits of the Specially Administered Territories with an almost exclusively non-Musalman population. It is doubtful if much more reliance can be placed on the figures for the separate Musalman tribes than on those for the separate Hindu castes. The comparison of the numbers of Shaikhs and Zerbadis for the years 1901 and 1911 is obviously of but little value. In Burma, tribal

distinctions tend to disappear or to be modified considerably by the environment. The great majority of the 100,842 persons classed under "Other Musalman Tribes"

were recorded merely as Musalmans, Mahomedan being entered in the column for religions, and Musalman in the column for caste, tribe or race. There are

possibilities of many cross categories especially among the Zerbadis, who may either enter themselves under this designation, or enter the tribe of the father. The large number of Zerbadis now recorded is significant as indicating the extent to which intermarriage between the Burmese and Musalman races is proceeding. Such intermarriage tends to obliterate tribal as apart from racial distinctions; the Mahomedanism generally re-

_ Musa	ılman Tribes.		Musalman Tribes.									
Designation.	Population.											
Designation.	1911.	1901.	Increase . or Decrease.									
Shaikh Zerbadi Saiyed Pathan Malay Other Musalman Tribes	237,568 59,729 6,871 8,041 4,239 100,842	269,042 20,423 8,970 9,224 3,983 19,656	- 31,474 + 39,306 - 2,099 - 1,183 + 256 81186									
Total	417,290	331,298	+ 85,992									

mains, and any such racial distinctions as Afghan or Pathan remain, but designations such as Shaik or Saiyed are gradually dropped except where there is a very strong Mahomedan community. The Malays are found along the coast of Mergui District. They invariably

very strong Mahomedan community. The Malays are found along the coast of Mergui District. They invariably engage in seafaring occupations of which fishing, pearl-diving and the coasting trade are the principal. In the interior of the district can be found a small number of Musalman agriculturists, Burmese in their language and general characteristics, who are the result of intermarriage of the indigenous population with the Musalmans of the coast.

Malays.	
1901	4,239 3,983
Increase	256

265. Indians and Indigenous Populations compared.—It is a fundamental article of belief with the majority of Europeans in Burma, that the Burmese

race is doomed and is bound to be submerged in a comparatively short time by the hordes of immigrants who arrive by every steamer from India. There are many facts which appear to provide good grounds for this belief, but it is entirely unsupported

		1901.	Incre	ase.
	1911.		Actual.	Per cent.
Hindu Castes	389 679	285,484	1, 4,195	36.49
Musalman Tribes	417,290	331,298	85,992	25.95
Other Indians	31,601	16,445	15,156	36.49
Total Indian Population	838,570	633,227	205,343	32'42
Burmese Proper	7.479.433	6,508,682	970,751	14'91
Burmese Racial Group	7,986,327	7,097,248	889,079	12'52
Indigenous Racial Groups	11,125,004	9,612,397	1,512,607	15'73

by the census returns, and a consideration of the true circumstances with regard to the effect of Indian immigration into Burma would appear to be necessary. Statistically the question belongs to Chapter II (Movement of Population) or to Chapter III (Birth-place) of this report, rather than to the chapter devoted to ethno-But it possesses an ethnical significance, and what is perhaps the most living racial problem in the province should not be ignored in a general review of its racial components. Statistically the problem is presented in a marginal statement showing the relative figures for 1901 and 1911 and the corresponding increases for certain racial units. The total increase of the Indian population, Hindus, Mahomedans and all other classes of Indians combined, is 205,343 or 32'42 per cent. Against this increase, Burmese proper can show an increase of 1491 per cent., the Burmese racial group of 12.52 per cent., and the indigenous races of the province of 15.73 per cent. It might appear that races showing an increase of 32.42 per cent. must in the long run prevail over races and groups with increases varying from 12 to 16 per cent. But the higher percentage is based on much smaller aggregate figures, and there is every indication that with an increase in the aggregate figures a decrease in the percentage will follow. For instance between 1891 and 1901 the increases in the Hindu and Mahomedan populations were 63 and 33 per cent. respec-Between 1901 and 1911 on higher aggregate figures the percentages of increase have respectively diminished to 36.49 and 25.95. Putting percentages aside, as fictitious guides when comparing figures of greatly disproportionate magnitude, the increase of 205,343 in the Indian population is seen to dwindle into

insignificance in comparison with the increase of 970,751 persons who entered themselves in the record as Burmese, or with the addition of over a million and a half to the indigenous races of the province. An increase of two hundred thousand persons is not appreciably near to effecting the submergence of a race showing an increase approaching a million persons, even though the former does assume a percentage of 32 while the latter appears as a percentage of less than 15.

266. Causes of Slow Increase of Indian Population.—There are numerous causes to explain the comparatively slow increase of the Indian population

Hindu and Mahomedan sex numbers.					
Religion.	Sex.	1901.	1911.		
Hindu	Males	236,930	312,650		
	Females	48,554	77,029		
Mahomedan	Males .	220, 99	271,428		
	Females	119,347	149,349		

ber of immigrants. The second factor in keeping down the number of Indian

Excess of deaths ove Rangoon 1901—	
Birt lis Deat hs	43,204 96,949
Natural Decrease	53.745

of Burma. Considering the enormous amount of immigration, the greater part of it is seasonal, and the majority of the immigrants return to their native countries after a longer or shorter sojourn in the province. In one year (1908) the shipping returns actually showed a larger number of emigrants departing from the port of Rangoon than of immigrants arriving. This was of course an exception, but the net gain by immigration is a small proportion only of the total num-

inhabitants in Burma is the extremely slow rate of natural increase. Indeed, it can

be said that there is no natural increase whatever among The overwhelming preponderance of males leads to an excess of the death-rate over the birth-rate. latter, depending on the number of marriageable women, is exceedingly low compared with the total population. This can be best exemplified by a comparison of the number of births and deaths for the decade 1901 to 1911 in Rangoon, where the Indian population is in a majority. As a result of this decrease a large proportion of the net gain by immigration is necessary to keep their numbers

in a state of equilibrium. It is only after the natural decrease has been compen-

sated that the tendency to increase begins to operate.

But this excess of immigrant males has another effect so far as the Hindus are concerned. They intermarry largely among the Burmese, and the children of such marriages in the majority of cases are brought up as Burmans, adopt the dress, manners and customs of the Burmese, and in course of time are incorporated into the Burmese race. This is not invariably the case. Among wealthy Hindus of high caste, the children are generally brought up as Hindus and not as Burmans, though after one or two generations of residence in Burma the caste feeling decreases and the tendency to the adoption of Burmese customs, speech and race gradually grows stronger. Neither is it the case with the children of mixed Mahomedan and Burmese parentage. These form a separate Mahomedan tribe called the Zerbadis, who though Burmese in some of their characteristics generally retain their Mahomedan religion and are not entered as Burmans. But even allowing for the children of mixed marriages of Burmese women with wealthy Hindus and with Mahomedans, there still remain very large numbers of children of Indian male parentage who go to swell the numbers of the Burmese race. These affect the relative numbers in a double sense. They detract from the potential increase of the Indian population and they add to the actual increase of the Burmese population.

It would be possible to multiply reasons why the number of Indian inhabtants in Burma does not increase at a greater rate. They are not homogeneous. They come from different countries, speak different tongues, have cifferent customs and religions, and are almost as foreign to each other as they are to the Burmese. A united, single-minded, highly-civilised body of equal numbers might make a much greater ethnical impression on the province. But a heterogeneous collection of people collected from all parts of India, many of an inferior stage of civilisation, all incapable of unified action, incapable even of acting alike in similar circumstances, cannot produce a result commensurate with its numbers. The diversities of the various indigenous races of the province sink into insignificance compicted with the diversities of the members of its Indian population. The Burmese people we not confronted with an invasion from a single, united and highly-civilised taxe. They are merely subjected to incursions from numerous and diverse quarters

each one insignificant in itself, possibly disquieting in the aggregate, but assuming a fictitious aspect of menace owing to the massing together under one designation of incongruous and disunited elements.

- 267. Economic aspect of Indian immigration.—Another aspect of the immigration of Indians to Burma is worthy of notice. The Indian comes to Burma to supply an economic demand which the Burman has failed to supply. Burman has been so occupied in filling up the waste places of his country that he has never competed for a large number of town and city occupations. In so far as the demand for Indian labour is a demand for cheap, docile, disciplined labour, the Burman has not yet needed to enter into competition with the contract labour from Madras. It is true that there are higher forms of skilled industry, the mechanical, the engineering, the building, the transport, the distributive and the commercial, which the Burman has abandoned largely to foreign hands. But there is no certainty that such an economic phase is lasting. It has already been noticed how a demand for cheap labour for the rubber industries in the Federated Malay States has affected the rate of immigration into Rangoon. It has still to be discovered how the gradual occupation of the culturable portions of the province and the ultimate forcing of the Burman into urban occupations will affect the demand for India i labour in Burma. The abstinence of the Burmese from a greater participation in urban industries is no self-denying ordinance. It merely expresses the fact that the race has found more congenial and profitable occupation in other directions. But when the opportunities in other directions begin to fail or to grow less attractive, then a much more strenuous competition on the part of the Burman for a share in the urban life of the province may be anticipated.
- 268. General conclusions as to the effect of Indian immigration.-Summing up the discussion on the racial competition between the Indian and the indigenous populations of the province, it is seen that current economic conditions have created a demand for labour in certain directions which the Burman has failed This has led to a large immigration from India to Burma. immigration is to a great extent neither instinctive, nor natural, nor permanent. is an artificial enhancement of the labour supply in a sparsely populated country. It looms large in the public eye because the resulting population has settled in the most conspicuous lines of observation, the large towns and villages on the main lines of communication. But its resultant ethnical effect is insignificant. The additions to the Burmese population or to the indigenous population of the province during a decade exceed any additions to the immigrant population several times over. The immigrant races, so far as existing tendencies can indicate, may modify, but can never submerge, the Burmese population. The Burmese race was created through the absorption of Indian immigrants by the nomadic tribes of the Irrawaddy valley. It has attained its present position and numbers by a process of absorption continued throughout centuries of its history. It is absorbing at the present time the descendants of a large proportion of the immigrants who settle permanently in the province. When it can provide a labour supply adequate to the demand, a time which in the opinion of some observers is not far distant, it will continue the process by which it attained its being. When the easily culturable waste places of the province have all been occupied, and Burmese expansion, now distributed widely over the country, is forced into the towns, it is possible to anticipate fresh conditions leading to a continued supremacy of the Burmese race, modified and probably greatly strengthened by the absorption of the Indian races, the members of which will no doubt continue to arrive in considerable numbers.

#### INDIGENOUS RACIAL GROUPS.

269. Ethnical Classification in Burma.—An accurate estimate of the numerous tribes and races found within the province of Burma is a matter of extreme difficulty. The physical characteristics of the northern portion of the country have induced innumerable differences in customs, language and tribal distinctions. But it is not only in the number of categories to be considered that the difficulty lies. The distinctions between them are neither definite, nor logical, nor permanent, nor easy to detect. They frequently depart from the lines of linguistic differences, and are subject to local variations impossible to estimate. They are unstable from generation to generation, the racial designation of a

community sometimes changing so rapidly that its elders consider themselves as belonging to one race while their descendants claim to belong to another. marriage between neighbouring tribes introduces fresh complexities, the tribe or race of the offspring being largely indeterminate. But apart from such intrinsic difficulties the want of an accurate knowledge of the subject imposes an insuperable barrier to the accuracy of any statistics recorded. And just where the difficulties are greatest, where the determination of the race of each individual is not a matter of course, where the want of adequate knowledge is most acute, the machinery for obtaining accurate records is most primitive. Over large areas no administration whatever has been attempted, and no census enumeration is possible. Over still larger areas a full synchronous census is not feasible. As each successive enumeration has been effected, the census area has been extended, and the omitted and specially treated areas diminished. But even yet, the enumeration of the tribes and races in Northern Burma is partial and defective. It is with such knowledge that the statements concerning castes and tribes and races in Imperial Table XIII, and in the Subsidiary Tables appended to this chapter, must be examined. primary categories to be recorded are not always strikingly distinctive, they were recorded under many diverse conditions affecting their quality and precision, the boundaries of the area of record are arbitrary and irrelevant limits dictated by administrative possibilities, and the antecedent knowledge of the elements to be tabulated is too limited to permit of any independent check of the classified results.

The correct method to be adopted for a census analysis of the tribes and races of Burma is not easy to determine. It may assume the form of a general description of the manners, customs, locality and numbers of each separate racial and tribal unit entered in the returns, or it may be but a brief reference to the numbers recorded. The general instructions issued, based as they are on an analysis of caste, do not afford much assistance in indicating the degree of detail that should be incorporated. An adequate treatment of each race and tribe would require not one chapter, nor one volume, but many volumes. Moreover as far as it could be accomplished it would largely be a work of supererogation. is not an important race or tribe in Burma which has not been described and redescribed, more fully than could possibly be attempted in a chapter of a census report, in works both official and non-official. Sir George Scott's Gazetteer of Upper Burma, the Census Reports of 1891 and 1901, the volumes of the Ethnogra-phical Survey of Burma and the Burma Volumes of the Indian Gazetteer, to mention only the principal works of the former class, contain descriptions of the history, traditions, and to a certain extent, the social customs of the tribes and races of the province. Any attempt to describe each race and tribe appearing in the census records would simply be a recapitulation of material available in an easily accessible form. The census reports of 1891 and 1901 each dealing with large additional areas, for the first time coming within the scope of the enumeration, and each containing the records of fresh racial units, naturally demanded descriptive details on a somewhat large scale. But the present census has covered comparatively little fresh ground, and the tribes and races in the added areas have been previously the subject of lengthy descrpition. Consequently it is quite unnecessary to burden this chapter with a narrative of the characteristics of each separate tribe. A precedent for this course of procedure is to be found in the fourth volume of the Burma Ethnographical Series on the Tribes of Burma, where Mr. Lowis refrained from a description of the Burmese, Talaing and Shan races and devoted himself to the ethnographical grouping of the tribes of the province. It was sound to be necessary in order to obtain a correct classification to abandon all extraneous matters which were not directly relevant to the object of the work of survey.

270. Racial Instability.—It has already been necessary to refer to the extreme instability of racial distinctions, when considering the languages spoken by the various tribes and races in Burma. It manifests itself in various ways, sometimes apparently in contrary directions. In some conditions it works for consolidation, and in others for dispersion. Although it is in operation over the whole province, it can be observed with greatest facility on the northern frontier, where the close proximity of the various races forms a favourable environment. In order to appreciate the nature of the phenomenon of easy transition from one race to another two quotations from acute observers who have studied the question on the spot may be given. Mr. Grant Brown, in his Gazetteer of the Upper Chindwin District, writes:—

"The Upper Chindwin presents such an object-lesson in ethnology as it would be difficult, perhaps, to find elsewhere. The processes that in most parts of the world extend

will permit. It is necessary in this connection to keep in mind the distinction, between caste and race. Caste lends itself to a more precise definition. classification of castes is a grouping of communities which can be tested by actual existing facts and beliefs to a far greater extent than is possible with respect to race. A description of a caste is necessary before it can be placed into its appropriate group. The grouping largely depends on and follows the customs and beliefs described. But race is a phenomenon of a much more complex nature. is not primarily a question of existing customs and beliefs. It is dependent on historical, linguistic and geographical considerations. It cannot be determined by an examination of the manners and customs and traditions of a community. are the boundaries between different races and tribes so well defined as between different castes and sub-castes. There is no insuperable boundary between the members of separate races, and still less between the members of separate tribes. These are changed and transformed, separated and amalgamated, and the members transfer themselves from one to another with the greatest facility. In the past the subjugation of one community by another has generally been followed by a fusion of the two or by the absorption of the conquered by the conquerors. Although the possibility of racial transformation by this means has now been greatly curtailed, it has been in active operation up till comparatively recent times. the evacuation of Pegu by the British in 1826, the Talaing language was rigorously suppressed, its teaching in the Buddhist monasteries was forbidden, and the absorption of the Talaings by the Burmans rendered inevitable. More recent instances of this process can be studied in the Chin Hills, where until administrative control was established quite recently tribal fusion as a result of conquest was in constant operation. Even at the present time, the existence of unadministered territory within the limits of the province, permits the possibility of racial transformation by the means of force. But aggression is by no means the only method possible. Intermarriage affords innumerable opportunities for effecting a transfer from one race to another, and produces a vague border land of hybrid tribes and individuals in which no clear determinate line of demarcation between separate communities exists. Religion, with its corollary of education, is another potent factor in the diffusion of the superior languages resulting in the ultimate assimila-tion of the members of less advanced tribes. The monastery schools of the province can claim an equal share with its travelling dramatic companies in producing the remarkable uniformity of the Burmese language throughout its limits, and a superior share in extending the language to the neighbouring tribes The use of a fresh language is generally followed by the assumption of the dress, customs and race of the people by whom the extending language is Migration, by bringing primitive tribes into a new environment, and into contact with civilised races, operates to produce both racial fissure, and racial amalgamation. It may result in the multiplication of tribes asserting a separate tribal existence, or it may result in the extinction of smaller tribes by absorption with their more powerful neighbours. Race in Burma is not a fixed definite phenomenon capable of presentation in a set of tabular statements. It is vague and indeterminate, and in a stage of constant fluctuation. Its method of record is liable to vary from district to district and sometimes from enumerator to enu-The census figures are but a presentation of a momentary phase of They do not necessarily represent a distribution of the racial distribution. population into separate and mutually exclusive racial groups. While the main racial divisions are based on distinct and separate migrations into the province, centuries of contact with one another have resulted in numerous actions and reactions of widely diverse character. The superior races, instead of using their superiority to maintain a state of exclusiveness, have utilised it to absorb and include all outside elements. The figures for the larger racial groups therefore represent the present resultant of a series of amalgamations extending through many centuries of time. The smaller groups consist of tribes which owing to various causes have escaped the assimilative activities of their more powerful neighbours. Wherever the surface of the country has been somewhat uniform, in the plains and the broader valleys, the tendency towards amalgamation has operated strongly. But wherever the surface of the country has been highly diversified, rendering communication difficult and central control impossible, the tendency towards amalgamation has operated slightly, and in many instances the contrary process of dispersion has been at work. At present, improved communications and control are assisting the forces making for amalgamation, and opposing those making for dispersion. But whichever tendency may be in

operation, the facility of transition from race to race and from tribe to tribe remains

as a permanent source of racial instability.

This suggests that the best method of dealing with the question of the classification of the indigenous tribes and races of the province is by commencing with a brief description of the various migrations which have produced its main racial groups. The origin of these groups having been determined, an estimate of their relative strength and progress can be made, to be followed by a brief analysis of each group as to its various constituents. The figures recorded will generally be sufficient to determine whether any community is in a state of expansion by absorbing its neighbours or in a stage of being absorbed by a larger and more virile race. Occasionally in order to supply information not readily accessible, or to illustrate some point brought out by the statistics a short narrative may be necessary, but otherwise purely descriptive details will be as far as possible avoided.

271. Early Munda Influences.—Of the original inhabitants of Burma nothing whatever is known. The earliest veritiable evidence points to the existence of a population akin to the Munda races of India over the greater portion of the province. The evidence is primarily linguistic and is based on the affinities between the Munda and the Mon-Khmer families of languages. But though their connection has been completely established, their marked divergencies in some respects have given a wide range of possibility to the nature of the tie connecting them. Neither is derived from the other. They are both probably the resultant of some common substratum, not at present identifiable, and other languages varying with the locality. This substratum was introduced into further India by races akin to those from whom the Indian Munda races are descended. Concerning the area over which this basic language was spoken Dr. Grierson writes:—

"Of what language this original substratum consisted, we are not yet in a position to say. Whatever it was, it covered alwide area, larger than the area covered by many families of languages in India at the present day. Languages with this common substratum are now spoken not only in the modern Province of Assam, in Burma, Siam, Cambodia and Anam, but also over the whole of Central India as far west as the Berars. It is a far cry from Cochin China to Nimar, and yet, even at the present day, the coincidences between the language of the Korkus of the latter District and the Anamese of Cochin China are strikingly obvious to any student of language who turns his attention to them. Still further food for reflection is given by the undoubted fact that, on the other side, the Munda languages show clear traces of connexion with the speeches of the aborigines of Australia."

No representatives of the races speaking this language now remain. Their identity was lost by fusion with the Mon-Khmer races who formed the first of successive series of migration waves from the Central Asian plateau. But their linguistic influence remains to demonstrate not only the extent of territory over which they spread themselves, but also the potent effect they exercised on the races with whom they came in contact.

of the Wa-Palaung group in the Shan States and the Möng Mit State of the Ruby Mines District, and a few members of the Miao and Yao tribes on the extreme Eastern borders of the Shan States. The process by which the Mon-Khmer races were isolated can be seen in operation at the present day. The Palaungs have been driven southwards from the hills of the Bhamo and Myitkyina Districts by the Kachins, and are now being hemmed in by the Kachins to the north and the Shans to the south.

273. The Tibeto-Burman Invasion—the Chins and Kachins.—Sir Richard Temple places the Burmese invasion at a period subsequent to that of the Siamese-Chinese. But the weight of authority is to the effect that priority should be assigned to the incursions of the Tibeto-Burmese races. Sir George Scott prefers to hold the opinion that the movements of the Shans do not constitute a migration, but that if they do, their place is the third rather than the second in order of succession. Dr. Grierson definitely asserts that the Tai or Shans are the latest of the Indo-Chinese immigrants into India. The contradiction is probably due to the fact that the first incursions of the Shans into Burma were small and caused rather by restlessness of character than by exterior force. Such small and occasional movements existed prior to the main inflow of Burmese immigration and to that extent the Shan invasion can claim priority. It must however be remembered that a racial invasion is not a simple phenomenon acting within a limited period. It is a succession of movements, now following each other with extreme rapidity, now almost lapsing into quiescence, and extending over indefinitely extended eras Its operation must be measured by its general results, not by any minor and isolated manifestations. Judged by such a standard the Tibeto-Burmese invasion is the second of the three main racial movements which have been instru-

mental in forming the population of Burma.

For many years the more generally accepted theory of the source of the Tibeto-Burmese invasion was that it originated in the Tibetan Plateau. This has however gradually given place to the opinion that these migrations commenced in a region in Western China between the sources of the Yang-tse-Kiang and the Hoang-ho. Starting with a westerly movement, the component races branched out into five directions upon reaching the head waters of the Irrawaddy and the Chindwin rivers. These led respectively to Tibet, to Assam, to the hill ranges between Burma and Assam, to the Irrawaddy valley, and to the valleys of the Salween and the Mekong. Mr. Lowis for the purposes of provincial consideration classified the races resulting from the last three of these movements into the Western and the Eastern Tibeto-Of the western branch, the Chins were the first arrivals in Burma gradually extending southwards from the Irrawaddy-Brahmaputra watershed until they have occupied the whole of the hilly country near the seaboard of the Bay of Bengal. The Kachins are much later representatives of the same movement. They are thrusting themselves southwards and eastwards with such energy at the present time that they are absorbing the scattered elements of other races lying in their path. For the present they are avoiding the regularly administered portions of the province. An instinctive movement of self-preservation has caused the Shans and the Burmese to resent the Kachin intrusion and to oppose obstacles in their path southwards. This has deflected the Kachin movement in an easterly Commencing as an item of the most westerly branch of the Tibeto-Burmese invasion in Burma, it has now taken a course almost due eastwards, and is skirting along the northern boundary of the Northern Shan States, penetrating that territory wherever possible, but being successfully turned aside into the Chinese border states to a great extent. It has largely absorbed the tribes of the Kachin-Burma hybrid groups, and has penned in the Palaungs into a slowly decreasing area, but upon the larger racial groups it has as yet made but a small

274. The Burmese.—It is necessary to consider the movement of the main branch of the Eastern Tibeto-Burmans and their evolution into the Burmese race in the valley of the Irrawaddy in greater detail. After diverging from the remaining streams of the main westward migration they pursued a southerly course down the valley of the N'maikha, the eastern branch of the Irrawaddy. The Marus, the Lashis, the Szis (Tsi) and the Hpons are racial deposits left behind in the course of this progress. Unable for some undetermined cause to push their journey to the southward till they arrived in the broad Irrawaddy valley, the progress of these tribes was arrested, and in the course of time they have been gradually cut off from

intercourse with the main bodies of their predecessors. Surrounded by alien elements, unsuited by their environment, and unable to associate with cognate tribes, they have gradually lost their distinctive characteristics and are now in process of absorption by other races, principally the Kachins. But those who progressed found the valley of the Irrawaddy admirably suited to their needs. It was at that time occupied by tribes of the Mon-Khmer race, who had spread themselves extensively, but insecurely, throughout the greater part of its area. The incoming hill tribes had no difficulty in brushing aside, and either isolating or driving back towards the sea, a race whose expansive power had become exhausted by too great a degree of extension. Nor did the small and widely scattered communities of Shans offer any obstacle to the southern progress of the Burmese tribes through the Irrawaddy valley. Leading a nowadic life, and grouping themselves into tribal units, they gradually extended their influence as far south as Prome. Between Prome and the sea coast, the Talaing branch of the Mon-Khmer races had succeeded by fusion with the more primitive Mundā races, in establishing themselves with sufficient stability to withstand any further encroachments by the hitherto victorious Burmese. For many centuries, though with many vicissitudes, this division of the Irrawaddy valley was perpetuated. The upper portion, roughly corresponding with the natural division designated the Central Basin, remained under Burmese influence, while the southern portion coinciding generally with the Deltaic Plains was equally dominated by the Talaings.

Although the boundary line of the two newly evolved race; the Burmese and the Talaings, was determined by the line of equilibrium of their respective expansive forces, their development into powerful kingdoms was due to other influences. The upper portions of the Irrawaddy valley provided a midway halting place for pilgrims and traders who undertook the adventurous overland journey between India and China. There gradually grew up little settlements of Incian colonists on the line of route, established to supply the needs of the travellers. Of these, Tagaung on the Upper Irrawaddy was the most important. These Indian colonists must not be confused with the primitive Mundā races whose habitat in Burma prior to the Mon-Khmer invasion has been demonstrated by their linguistic remains. They were highly civilised travellers and traders, well acquainted with the arts of commerce and government. Their colonies were examples of the possibilities of a settled life to the nomadic tribes surging around them. Gradually, as the limits of expansion were reached, nomadic life became more and more difficult, and the settlement of Tagaung became the nucleus of an ever-enlarging combination of tribes

which ultimately developed into an extensive kingdom.

Influences of a similar nature were also operating on the Talaings in the south. The pressure of the Burmese from the north and the Cambodians from the east induced the cohesion necessary for self-preservation. At the same time, proximity to the sea had rendered the Talaing country even more susceptible to the civilising influence of settlers from India, than the Burmese country in the upper valley. coast of the inland sea, which at one time occupied a large portion of the present deltaic area, was studded with small tracing settlements peopled with colonists from the eastern coast districts of the Incian peninsular. The most northern outpost of these settlements was Prome, whose early development was influenced from the south and from the sea rather than from the north. It was somewhere in the vicinity of Prome that the Talaings schooled by adversity, strengthened by concentration, and tutored by the lessons in skilled governmental organisation learned from the Indian colonists, were enabled to stem the hitherto irresistible onward march of the Burmese immigrants. The formation of a powerful centralised Talaing kingdom, while the Burmese were still in a primitive and inchoate stage of development, impeded Burmese expansion southwards for many centuries. For many years Prome remained the centre of a strenuous and confused struggle between the Talaings, the Hindu colonists, and the three Burmese tribes, the Pyus, the Kamrams and the Saks. Ultimately the Talaings were victorious, Prome was destroyed, and the Burmese tribes were scattered and driven northwards up the Irrawaddy valley. Burmese chronicles date the destruction of Prome at 104 A.D., but it was in all probability several centuries later. Deprived of the possibility of expansion southwards, the Burmese tribes expanded westwards into Arakan and thoroughly established therein the predominance of Burmese racial characteristics despite numerous modifying influences. A centralising tendency also began to assert itself. Retreating northwards from the pursuit of the Talaings, the Pyus, joined by remnants of the other Burmese tribes, founded the capital of Pagan, which rapidly increased in importance until it became the capital of a unified Burmese nation

extending from Tagaung in the north to Prome in the south and from the Shan Hills to Arakan from east to west.

275. The Lolo Migration.—An extreme eastern branch of the Tibeto-Burman migration is that comprising the tribes of the Lolo group. It is so distinct

Double classification.	Racial Group.	Triple classification.
Western {	Chin Kachin	Western.
Eastern {	Burmese Kachin-Burma	} Central.
(	Lolo	Eastern.

from the remaining Eastern-Tibeto movement that it might be considered a distinct movement. But for the confusion that might be caused, the division of the Tibeto-Burman invasion into two movements, the eastern and western, by Mr. Lowis, might be expanded into three, termed respectively the eastern, the central and the western. The alternative schemes are compared in the marginal

statement.

It is certain that the connection between the Lolo and the Burmese groups is not so close as is suggested by the classification of the former as the Lisaw sub-group. Mr. Lowis considers that the Lisus form a link connecting the Burmans with the Lolos. But linguistic evidence, while placing the Lisu dialect in the Tibeto-Burman sub-family, has determined that its connection with Burmese is remote, and that it is merely a dialect of the Lolo language. Instead of forming a connecting link between the two groups, Lisu must be placed wholly in the Lolo group, with but remote affinities with Burmese. The number of members of this group within the province is insignificant, but it is important that its degree of separation from what may be termed the central or main branch of the Tibeto-Burmese sub-family should be determined.

276. Siamese-Chinese Invasions—the Karens.—The plural term must be used to indicate the entire absence of connection between the migrations which introduced the Karens and the Shans into Burma. They do not belong even to the same series of movements. Whatever relationship may have existed between the two races, it dates the period before either had left their habitat in China and commenced their migration towards the south. They may have never been closely allied, and such linguistic affinities as exist may have been the result of similar outside influences operating on two distinct races. As to the tentative and provisional nature of their grouping together under one designation the opinion of Mr. Lowis may be quoted:—

"For those who know both the Karens and the Shans it is hard, at first sight, to understand how it can be scientifically demonstrable that the former are more closely related to the latter than to the other hill dwellers of Burma and the Shan States. The Karen has in the past been looked upon as so different from his neighbours that he has tended to become more or less an enigma, but philology has now assigned him, at any rate provisionally, a place in the order of peoples. Save for the language test, one might be disposed to class him with the Kaw, the Riang or the Muhso, but it is now established that his speech is more closely allied to Shan than to the vernaculars of the Tibeto-Burman branch or of the Mon-Khmer family, and his language must be looked on as indicating his racial origin."

Less is known of the origin of the Karens, of the situation of the region from which they originally came, of the time of their migration, of the routes they followed, and of the circumstances of their settlement in the Southern Shan States and in Burma, than of any of the other races within the province. Innumerable theories as to their origin have been seriously propounded, and defended with strenuous argument. That the Karens are the descendants of the lost ten tribes of Israel, that they have migrated from various parts of India and Tibet, and that they are the autochthonous inhabitants of Burma, are propositions which have each received strong support. Even now, nothing certain can be affirmed, though there is a high degree of probability that they came originally from the cradle of nearly all the Indo-Chinese races, the highlands of Western China. They preceded the main migration of the Shans. Peacefully, quietly, and unobtrusively they moved, avoiding all contact with the tribes they passed. Following the lines of least resistance, they preferred the hardships and the obstacles of the hills, the jungles, and the wild uninhabited regions on their route, to the more formidable dangers of conflict with their fellow beings. Their movements have left no impression on the histories of other races, and their legends are not of a nature to enable the paths they followed to be traced. Essentially they must have avoided the southerly path of the Tibeto-Burmans, and the south-easterly path of the Mon-Khmers before their westward extension, so in all probability they came by an intermediate route and eventually arrived at the Southern Shan States at a point somewhat north of Karenni. Occupying the hilly region of Karenni, at the extreme south of the Burmese Shan States, they gradually spread southwards and westwards over the Deltaic Plains and the Tenasserim Coast Ranges. But true to their nature, they avoided contact with other races, leading a wild and largely nomadic life in those portions of the country which were regarded by others as unfit for human habitation.

277. The Shans.—The Shan incursions into Burma fall into a category of their own. They are so different from the movements which have already been considered, that the term "migration" can hardly be considered appropriate as the designation for phenomena having so few points of resemblance. They were not. the disorganised movements of bands of primitive peoples, forced by the pressure of neighbouring tribes to find fresh regions for expansion and developement. first few sporadic incursions of Shans prior to the creation of a formidable Shan kingdom in south-western China may have been of this nature. But they were too remote and on too small a scale to leave any deep impression on the popula-tion of Burma. Subsequent invasions were more in the nature of military expeditions. They were the attempts of an established nation to extend its power and influence by means of conquest. They commenced with the destruction of the Burmese Kingdom of Tagaung and the dispersal of its Indian rulers. Burmese chronicles date this invasion at about the year 700 B.C., but it was most probably at a period corresponding very closely with the commencement of the Christian era. The Burmese however rallied again after this defeat, and it was not till the fifth or sixth century A. D. that the Shans obtained a permanent footing in the Shweli valley in the vicinity of Bhamo. From this as centre, they expanded in all directions, northwards through the Upper Irrawaddy valley, north-west to Assam, westwards to the Chindwin valley and to the south and south-east into the present Shan Their sphere of influence in Burma proper corresponded generally with the natural division which has been termed the Northern Hill Districts. gradual expulsion of the Shans from China, culminating with the conquest of Talifu by Kublai Khan in 1257 A.D., an important Shan kingdom was created with its headquarters in the Shweli valley. Here the Shans remained for several centuries subject to the vicissitudes of continuous warfare with the Burmese and Chinese. Their political power in Burma was finally broken by Alaungpaya in 1757 A.D.

278. Racial Groups as a resultant of the various invasions.—The preceding brief summary is essential to a correct appreciation of the existing racial distribution of the population of Burma. Without some historical preface the complex intermixture of tribes and races having but a slight affinity with each other would appear to defy all possibilities of analysis. No attempt has been made to trace the subsequent histories of the various racial constituents beyond what is

necessary to explain their general distribution in the province relatively to one another. To the fierce and almost exterminawarfare tory waged between the Burmese, the Talaings and the Shans for supremacy, for a period of nearly 2,000 but the years, barest references have been made. It affords a most

Invasion.		Racial groups.	Present population.	
Main stream.	Branch.		Actual.	Percentage.
Mon-Khmer	_	Talaing Palaung-Wa	320,629 172,494	2.64 1.43
	Western	Chin Kachin	306,486 162,368	2.23 1.34
Tibeto-Burman	Eastern	Burma Kachin Burma Hybrid. Lolo group	7,986,327 10,167 67,418	65.92 68
Siamese-Chinese {	Sinitic Tai	Karen Shan	1,102,695 996,420	9.11 8.53
	-	Total	11,125,004	91.82

fascinating study and would be of assistance in explaining the resultant strength and numbers of the competing races. But these advantages would not be

indicate that the race is continuing to strengthen its position among the remaining racial groups of the province. Its increase of 970,751 or 1491 per cent. since 1901 is almost identical with the percentage of the increase of population for Burma proper for the same period. Excluding the Specially Administered Territories, where changes in census limits are disturbing factors, the increase of population in Burma itself for the period 1901 to 1911 is almost exactly 15 per cent. Despite the immigration of races from India, the rate of increase of the Burmese race is almost identical with that of Burma as a whole. The increase has been partly due to the absorption of tribes within the same racial group, and partly to a tendency to enter the children of certain classes of mixed marriages as Burmese. As a comparison of the growth of the Indian population with that of the Burmese and of the indigenous races of the province has already been given, it is unnecessary to re-discuss in detail the probable future of the Burmese race, as far it can be indicated by the census records.

- 281. The Arakanese.—The Arakanese race or tribe is a branch of the Burmese race, inhabiting the three districts of Akyab, Kyaukpyu and Sandoway in the Arakan division. The separation of the Arakanese from the Burmese occurred at a very early period, and indeed it might almost be stated that the two branches evolved simultaneously, side by side, from the same racial elements. The principal points of difference between the two are due to the close proximity of Arakan with the sea and with the Chittagong District of Bengal. This has introduced a much larger degree of intermixture with the various Indian races among the Arakanese than is to be found among the Burmese. But it must be remembered, that the difference is one of degree and not one of kind. There is among the Burmese a perceptible admixture of Indian blood, and the foundations of the Burmese race are inseparably connected with the existence of Indian colonies in the valley of the Like the Tavoyans the Arakanese are rapidly tending to obliterate the distinctions separating them from the Burmese. The number of Arakanese returned in the census records is 61,020 less than in 1901. This decrease coincides with a more than corresponding increase in the number of Burmese in Arakan. present tendencies continue the existence of the Arakanese as a separate branch of the Burma racial group will cease in the ordinary course of time.
- 282. The Taungyos.—The Taungyos are a Burmese tribe which at some undetermined period left the Irrawaldy valley and proceeded eastwards into the southern portion of the Myelat plateau of the Southern Shan States. They occupy the States of Hsamongkham, Mawnang and Kyauklat. Surrounded as they are by Shans, and cut off from intercourse with the main branch of the Burmese race their development has been considerably modified. Their dress and many of their customs are similar to those of the Shans and Taungthus, but their language demonstrates an identity of origin with the Burmese. The similarity of their dress and their customs with those of the Taungthus, and the fact that these two non-Shan tribes live in close proximity, in the centre of a Shan environment, has suggested that the two tribes were akin. They have been jointly treated in the Upper Burma Gazetteer, and though the relationship of the Taungthus to the Karens and of the Taungyos to the Burmans is therein indicated, the total difference of identity of origin is obscured by the suggestion that the tribes have a close relationship with each other. Mr. Lowis considers that the vernacular of the Taungyos may be regarded as proof positive that they are not a section of the Taungthus who have acquired the speech of their Burmese neighbours in the plains, but a Burmese speaking community which established itself in the Taungthu country before the Burmans as a body embraced Buddhism, and has since then learnt to conform outwardly to Taungthu habits of life. They show a moderate rate of increase in numbers, demonstrating their ability to maintain their tribal identity in a more or less adverse environment.
- 283. The Inthas.—Like the Taungyos, the Inthas are members of a Burmese tribe which has settled in the Shan States. They inhabit the villages around the Yaung Hwe Lake. Their designation may be translated as "Sons of the lake" Dwellers on the lake." The lake is not of great depth, and it is the habit of Inthas to build their houses on piles over the water, sometimes as much as half mile from the shore. All communication between villages is by mater asserts that the Inthas were originally natives of Tavoy, but it is impossible to the water what degree of probability there is in this account of their originally natives with a Soan production.

records indicate a moderate increase and demonstrate that despite the surrounding Shan influences and the adoption of the Shan dress and many Shan customs, they are no danger of losing their racial identity.

- 284. The Danus.—The Danus inhabit the border country which separates the Shan States from Upper Burma. They are principally to be found on the Shan side of the border, though there is a fringe extending into the Upper Burma districts from the Ruby Mines to Yamethin. Opinions as to the origin of the Danus are various. They are a hybrid race to which many racial elements may have contributed. Undoubtedly Shan and Burmese preponderate in their composition. Some of their customs have led to the suggestion that they were originally derived from a Taungthu tribe of the Karens. But if this is the case, the Taungthu element has been submerged by subsequent racial additions. In the Upper Burma Gazetteer it is stated that the Danus like the Kadus are destined to disappear very soon, but the census records, showing an increase of 7,398 on the figures for 1901, suggest a contrary conclusion. It is possible that the connotation of the term Danu is widening and that it has come to include all the persons on the Burma border of the Shan States who are descended from mixed Shan and Burmese ancestry.
- 285. The Hpons.—The Hpons, who did not appear as a separate tribe in the census records for 1901 and who have appeared to the number of 378 in the current census records, are a tribe located in the upper defile of the Irrawaddy In the account of the Hpons given in the Upper valley in the Myitkyina District. Burma Gazetteer, it is stated that it is possible that they may be a mere sort of dishclout full of traces of all their neighbours, but that on the other hand, they may prove a valuable link in the ethnical chain when the detached links begin to be joined together. The latter is the more probable alternative. Major Davies considers that the Hpons in conjunction with the Tsis, the Marus and the Lashis may throw some light on the disputed point as to how the Burmese reached their present country. It is probable that the Hpons were of identical origin with the tribes who migrated along the eastern branch of the Irrawaddy river into the main Irrawaddy valley and ultimately coalesced to form the Burmese race. While their predecessors succeeded in reaching their objective, the Hpons were intercepted by the invasion of the Shans from the east. Unable to continue their migration they settled down in their present habitat and have now adopted Shan customs and are in a stage of rapid absorption by the Shans who surround them on all sides.
- 286. The Tavoyans.—So far as the Tavoyan can be considered to be a distinctive tribe of the Burmese racial group, the figures recorded at the census are highly misleading. Instead of the insignificant number of 523, the majority of the Burmese population of the Tavoy District (119,899) should be included. The absence of any recognition of the racial distinction in the Tavoy District itself is perhaps to be taken as proof that it has ceased to exist, and that the Tavoyans are to be considered as a branch of the Burmese race, speaking a localised dialect.

287. The Kadus.—The Kadus are one of the numerous tribes who were able to maintain an independent existence, and even to increase and thrive by the absorp-

The Kadus.				
1901 1901			34,629 11,190	
Decre	ase		23,433	

tion of neighbouring elements, when the control of the central government in Burma did not extend to every obscure corner of the kingdom. Located on the borders of the Katha and Upper Chindwin Districts, they occupied a situation at the meeting places of four racial movements. The Chins to the east, the Kachins from the north, and the Burmans and the Shans from the south and west all extended their spheres of influence to this locality without incorporating it effectively as their distinctive territory. In

a note by Mr. Blake quoted in the Census Report for 1901 it is stated that "who the Kadus are, whence they came, and when, are questions which having remained unanswered up to the present are not likely to be answered in the future." Mr. Clayton, I.C.S., in his Settlement Report on the Katha District gave the nearest answer to these questions that has yet been attempted. As a Settlement Report is not available for reference except in a very limited sense, his opinion may be quoted as supplementing and modifying the information given in the Census Report of 1901:—

"The origin of the Kadus has long been a vexed question. There are five or six different tribes among them, but all trace their descent from one or sometimes from both

· 22

of two distinct stocks. The first describe themselves as Chingyan or alternatively

Chingywin-Chingvan, i.e., the remnant of the Chins."

Maingthon mountain having affinities with the Kachins of further north. It is probable that they are a back water of the prehistoric wave of Chin immigration, with possibly an admixture from the earliest Kachin arrivals who were rounded up into the Katha hills by the growth of the Shan power of Mohnyin. The second stock claim to be refugees from the country of Mahamyaing in the Shwebo and Upper Chindwin Districts after the fall of the Princess of Peitthano, a city on the Sebadon Chaung, before King Duttabaung of Thayekittaya or Prome. The Mahamyaing country would appear to have been peopled by an off-shoot of the main Burman immigration from Tagaung, during its progress down the Irrawaddy valley, though in this case also a considerable admixture of the previous Chin inhabitants was probably present. This off-shoot appears to have developed independently of the main Burman power, which later moved its capital to Prome, and to have fallen before it when the Talaings of Pegu forced the Myaing either before or after their defeat the Burmans apparently gave the name of Kantu. Some of them were driven north to the Katha hills, some including the Princess were, according to the legend, carried off to Sittha in Taung-dwingyi, near which town there are the ruins of a second Peitthano to which the Shwebo legend has been transferred, and in the neighbourhood there is still a proverb 'Taungdwin sit hlyin Kantu' scratch a Taungdwin man and you will find a Kantu. But the majority were undoubtedly absorbed in the main Burman race, as indeed the Kantus of Taungdwingyi have been.

have been.

"The Kantu refugees to Katha coalesced with the wild tribes of the Maingthon range and of the Upper Chindwin and produced the Kadu as we know him. The predominant influence among them now is probably the Chingyan or aboriginal element as may be seen from their spirit worship, the principal object of which is the Ashingvi or great nat of the Maingthon mountain. The Kadu language has admittedly been acquired since the people took refuge in the hills and the Kadus of Pyinsala on the Shwebo border disclaim all knowledge of it. It is a jargon of Burmese, Shan and Kachin words, and it is probable that what special peculiarities it has of its own it has derived from Chingyan sources. The Gana Kadus differ in dialect somewhat from the others. This may be due to the fact that they joined with the tribes of the Upper Chindwin forests and not with those of Maingthon."

Reference has already been made to the suggestion of Mr. Grant Brown that Kadu was the language of one of the tribes which came to Burma long ago and eventually formed what is now the Burmese people. It seems more probable that in their origin they were a tribe intermediate between the Chin and the Kachin branches of the western Tibeto-Burman invasion. The locality in which they settled facilitated intercourse with the outlying inhabitants of neighbouring races, without affording opportunities for incorporation. It became a backwater uninfluenced by the main currents of national life. Refugees from the stress and strain of intertribal conflicts found security within its limits. The primitive Chins, the migrating Kachins, the fugitive Burmans, and the surrounding Shans all amalgamated to form an unobtrusive community in an obscure part of the country. But with the extension of the central authority, and still more, with the establishment of peace and security, the isolation of the Kadu country has been impaired. A hybrid tribe with a hybrid language, it has been unable to withstand continuous contact with the outside world. It is gradually being absorbed by its neighbours the Kachins, the Shans and the Burmans, the latter more especially. Its numbers are less than a third of those recorded ten years ago. In dress, in speech and in customs, its members are gradually transforming themselves, and with diminishing numbers the disintegration will probably proceed with accelerated rapidity.

288. The Chaungthas.—In the census report for 1901 Mr. Lowis classed the Chaungthas in the Burma racial group, but indicated that the classification was tentative and that further research was necessary to show whether the Chaungthas had more Burmese or more Chin blood in their composition. In the course of the ethnographical survey of Burma, Mr. Lowis modifies the classification and places the Chaungthas as a hybrid Chin tribe, remarking that it is doubtful whether they are Arakanese who have amalgamated with their Chin neighbours or a tribe of Chins which has adopted the dress, religion and speech of the Arakanese. I have preferred to retain the Chaungthas as a tribe of the Burma group. In the uncertain realm of ethnical classification in Burma, priority must be given to linguistic evidence. The written character of the Chaungthas, though differing greatly from the Burmese form, was undoubtedly derived from Burmese or Arakanese. The colloquial form of their language is Arakanese with dialectical differences. The traditions of the Chaungthas attribute their origin to the Talaings. Among local authorities, the theory that the Chaungthas were a Chin tribe which has adopted Arakanese characteristics receives no support. They

are, in all probability, a branch of the Arakanese who separated from the main stock at some indeterminate period and selected to dwell among the hills bordering Kaladan valley of the Akyab and Northern Arakan Districts.

The following quotation from the revised Akyab Gazetteer of 1905 gives in a

concise form their principal traditions and characteristics:

"The Chaungtha or children of the stream are descendants of Pyu and Mon of Burma. The story relates that in A. D. 1596 the king Min Rajagyi of Arakan having rendered assistance to the king of Taungu in investing the capital of Pyu and defeating the Shans and driving them off from the country, he received a portion of the treasure and a princess of the supreme king. Thousands of Pyu and Talaing people were sent along with the princess to Arakan. The king of Arakan made the princess a queen and settled her followers on the east of the Kaladan river near Taywe-chaung. The princess was styled Pegupyu Minthami. Her followers were said to be mostly soldiers and archers who were divided into two divisions under the command of Thama Legyaw and Ledet-Legyaw. divided into two divisions under the command of Thama Legyaw and Ledet-Legyaw. Whilst staying near Taywe-chaung they proved themselves useful in suppressing the rising of the Chins near the Yomas. When the Shandu Chiefs Muntin and Munprun rose in rebellion in the Upper Kaladan the two Talaing Chiefs were sent there to suppress the rising. In course of time these Talaings and Pyus became homesick and many of them ran away back to their country. When the king knew about it, he removed them to the west of the Kaladan river and settled them in the following localities in the hills which extend as far as Chittagong Hill Tracts. They were sent to the hills for their reputed bravery and hardiness to control the hill tribes. In manners and customs they differ but little from the Arakanese and Burmese, they have black straight hair, high cheek bones, oblique eyes, and scanty beard. They are Buddhist and worship 'Nats' and all customs common to primitive tribes are strictly observed. The Chaungthas in the Chittagong hill tracts tie the hair at the back instead of on the top. It might be that the Chaungtha of Chittagong having lived amongst tribes who wear their hair thus, or it might be their inherited custom as the Talaings in ancient time used to wear their hair in a large knot at the back of the head. These were Arakanese who became Chaungtha by long residence amongst them and intermarriage. Their descendants sometimes use an insulting term 'Tameinhtan' (carriers of petticoats of the Pegupyu princess) towards true Chaungthas. It might be that the Chaungthas in this district being far away from the home of their ancestors have found it convenient to adopt local customs and to worship local Nats."

289. Mros or Mrus.—Sir Arthur Phayre writing of the Mru tribe states that it is a hill tribe now much reduced from its ancient state. He estimated that the number of the tribe amounted to about 2,800 souls, but the census of 1891 gave the number of Mrus as 15,891. In 1901 the numbers had declined to 12,622 and in 1911 only 2,708 were recorded, a number which approximates with that mentioned by Sir Arthur Phayre. There is no doubt that the tribe is in a stage of rapid disintegration. Its members have been driven from their original habitat on the Kaladan river by the invasions of the Khamis and the Chaungthas. have retreated before these invasions towards the west and now occupy the hills on the border between Arakan and Chittagong. The striking fall in numbers may be due partly to the absorption of the members of the tribe in a stage of retreat and decay by their neighbours, and partly to a further westward movement into Chittagong. The extent of the latter cannot be estimated until the figures for Eastern Bengal and Assam are published. Mr. Lowis has classed the Mros as a Chin tribe. Linguistic evidence points rather to a Burmese origin. traditional evidence that the Mru and the Burmese races are of the same lineage. The exact position of the tribe in the scheme of classification is a matter of some difficulty, but the weight of evidence suggests its inclusion in the Burmese racial

290. The Tamans.—The following narrative from Mr. Grant Brown's Gazetteer of the Upper Chindwin District summarises all that is known of the

Tamans. Only 527 were returned as such in the census records.

The Tamans are found only in the Upper Chindwin, and nearly all of them in a small area in the neighbourhood of Tamanthi or Tamanthe, on the Chindwin 62 miles above Homalin. They speak a distinct language of the Tibeto-Burman group, more nearly allied to Bormeso, at least in syntax, than to Naga, Chin, or Kachin. Like the so-called Shans around them, they wear Burmese dress, and in appearance they do not differ from their neighbours. Their tradition is that their ancestors were driven out from Okkat in China and statistic the same name as Hokat, a village on the Irrawaddy in nearly the same latitude as from early and settled conturies ago in what is now the bed of the Indawovi lake just Lamanthij and settled centuries ago in what is now the bed of the Indawgyi lake, just hallower between Tementhi and Hokat. A sudden flood destroyed their villages and dr. and fine a di them, and the servivors fled to the mountains west of the Chindwin. Here the fined the life i the wild Nagas discarding clothes but after many generations the control an energy to the plains, and founded a village near the present site of P. match. Their stry receives some commution from their religious rites. Though processing B. 1461sm, they sucrifice a pig to their guardian deity twice a year, and set the

meat before him with chopsticks, the use of which for private purposes is now quite unknown. The pig is slain with a club, and its blood sprinkled on the worshippers by the priest, who has previously uttered prayers for the welfare of his people.

"The Tamans have only lately begun to intermarry with the people found, and to this fact, no doubt, they owe the preservation of their language and their religious rites. Their neighbours have a strong belief perhaps encouraged by the Tamans themselves, in their supernatural powers, and this may have helped to preserve their existence as a separate community. Along with other accomplishments they are supposed to be able to turn themselves at will into tigers. The Malins, though they do not call themselves Tamans, may be regarded as a branch of the same people. Their language is almost extinct, being now fully known to only one old woman. It is merely a dialect of Taman."

291. The Yabeins.—The Yabeins can scarcely be called a distinct tribe. Originally of Burmese race, their occupation as silkworm rearers, with the resultant destruction of the silkworm chrysalis, brought them into discredit with their more orthodox Buddhist neighbours. They were either not of a sufficiently inventive turn of mind to create the fiction necessary to bring their occupation within the pale of Buddhism, or were not sufficiently numerous to enforce universal acceptance of such fiction if invented. Their isolation in villages on the slopes of the Southern Pegu Yomas encouraged their differentiation from their neighbours in other than religious and industrial characteristics. Gradually they evolved a distinct dialect, and their treatment as religious outcasts by the Burmese induced a separate tribal life. Their numbers are gradually but slowly diminishing, the distinctions between them and the Burmese are vanishing and their reabsorption into the Burmese race is only a question of time.

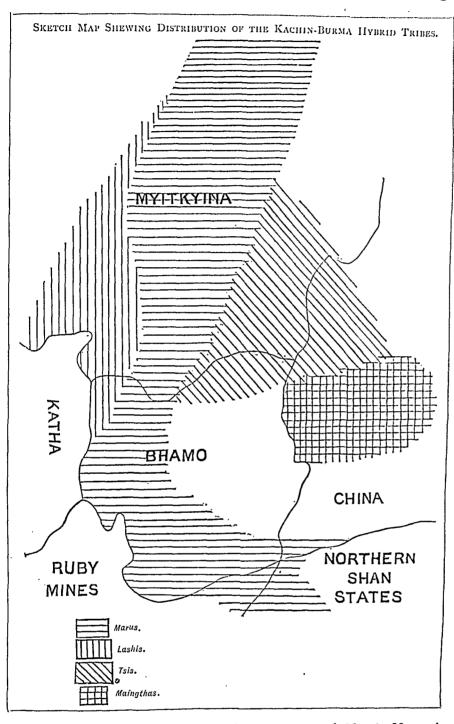
292. The Yaws.—The home of the Yaws is the Yaw valley of the Pakôkku District. Like the Tavoyans, they have almost disappeared as a distinctive tribe, and only enter their tribal name when distance from their habitat brings home to them the differences that still exist between them and the Burmese. They are a hybrid tribe, the Burmese strain predominating, with Shan and Chin as subsidiary constituents. There were 96 persons who were entered as Yaws in the census records, but this is no indication whatever as to the strength of the tribe. It merely indicates that they are being absorbed by the Burmese, the nominal assumption of the latter race preceding to some extent the actual adoption of its speech and customs.

293. Kachin-Burma Hybrids.—The extension of regular census operations in the Myitkyina district and the closer enumeration rendered possible by the

extension of administrative control on the north eastern border of the province is responsible for the comparatively large increase in the numbers of three members of this group of tribes. Superficially there is nothing to distinguish the Lashis, the Tsis and the Marus from the Kachins among whom they live. They live in the midst of Kachin country, they have adopted the Kachin customs and dress, and the Tsis are acknow-

T. II.		Numerical	Increase (+)			
Tribe.		1911.	911. 1381. Deci		ರ್ ಮೀ (—).	
Lashi Tsi (Szi) Maru Maingtha		2,968 3,003 3,855 401	40 317 149 749	. +	2,868 2,686 3,766 348	
Total		10,167	1,255	+	8,912	

The importance of these tribes ethnically is that they probably form with the Hpons a series of links connecting the Burmese race with its original sources in the



region of the head waters of the Yang-tse-Kiang and the Hoang-Ho. It is a matter of extreme difficulty estimate their total numbers. occupying they do situation extending beyond the northern administrative border of the Myitkyina District, and stretching along the eastern borders of the Myitkyina and Bhamo Districts into Chinese territory.

The 294. Marus, Lashis and Tsis.—The Marus or Laung, the name by which they call themselves, are to be found along the whole of explored portion of the Nmai-hka. They also extend southwards through

the Bhamo District as far as the Shan States of North Hsenwi, and eastwards beyond the Burmese frontier into China. In their southern migration they were headed off by the Kachins who intercepted them from the west and a process of gradual assimilation commenced. It is probable that the whole of the members of the group termed the Kachin-Burma hybrids are branches from the Marus, the distinctions between them indicating the degree to which their amalgamation with the Kachins and Shans has been effected, the Marus being those who have been least influenced by external influence, or rather who have resisted it for the longest period.

The Lashis are a branch of the original tribe of Marus. The region they occupy is far less extensive than that of the Marus, being confined to a restricted area around and about the western boundaries of the Bhamo and Myitkyina Districts. According to tradition the Lashis are the descendants of a Chinaman and a Maru woman. They are, however, in all probability a section of the Marus who have accepted amalgamation with the Kachins with greater readiness than was shown by the greater portion of the tribe. Though not recognised by the Kachins as such, they have been more completely absorbed than the remaining tribes

of this group.

The Tsis or Szis were originally the most southern branch of the Marus who first accepted assimilation with the Kachins as being inevitable. So complete is the amalgamation that they claim to belong to the Lepai tribe of the Kachins, though on the Kachin side only the Tsi Chiefs are recognised as being Lepais. They now occupy a locality on the eastern border of the Myitkyina District though scattered communities extend southwards along the eastern border of the Bhamo District into the Möng Mit State.

205. The Maingthas.—The superficial distinctions between the Maingthas on the one hand and the Marus, the Lashis and the Tsis on the other are so great that their classification together in one racial group has been a matter of much It has been seen that the latter three tribes are of identical Tibeto-Burman stock in different stages of absorption by the Kachins, and that there is little or nothing but the almost disappearing remnants of their speech to distinguish them from the Kachins. The Maingthas have adopted the dress, customs and religion of the Shans to such an extent that there appears to be nothing in common between them and the remaining tribes of the group. In the course of the Ethnographical Survey, Mr. Lowis classes the Maingthas as a Shan tribe and considers that they are merely Chinese-Shans. On the contrary, Major Davies states that though they sometimes speak of themselves as Shans on closer questioning they admit that they really belong to a distinct race. Their language has no affinity with Shan and is closely connected with the languages spoken by the Marus, the Lashis and the Tsis. It is probable that their ancestry is a complex of Maru, Kachin and Shan. Originally the most southern branch of the Marus they first amalgamated with the Kachins and formed a section of the Tsi tribe. Descending into the Möng Hsa valley of the Taiping river, they there met the Shans, and the admixture of the Tsis and the Shans formed the Maingtha tribe. They readily intermarry with the Chinese so that a determination of the racial ingredients of the present generation is a matter of some difficulty. It is the weight that must be given to linguistic evidence that has suggested their present grouping. Their headquarters are beyond the Burmese frontier, and it is only the surplus population of their overcrowded valley, travelling as pedlars, builders, blacksmiths and carpenters in Burma and the Shan States that is entered in the census records.

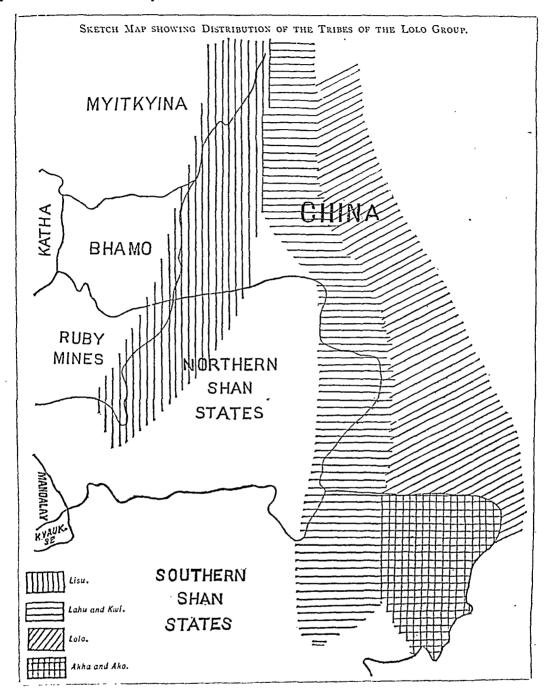
296. The Lolo Group of Tribes.—The Lolo group is the result of the most easterly division of the southern migration of the Tibeto-Burmese tribes.

Instead of pressing southwards towards the Irrawaddy valley the tribes of this group diverged in a south-easterly direction through the valleys of the Salween and the Mekong. At the census of 1901 a tentative grouping of these tribes as the Lisaw sub-group of the Burmese Group was made, but Major Davies prefers to place them linguistically as an independent group of the Tibeto-Burmese family. In this he is supported by various authorities, and his

Tribe.	Numerical:	-	
	1911.	1901.	Increase.
Lolo (Myen) Lisu (Lisaw) Lahu (Muhso) Kwi (Lahu Hsi) Akha (Kaw) Ako	339 8,487 18,103 3,189 33,181 4,119	1,427 15,774 2,882 26,020 1,506	+ 339 + 7,060 + 2,329 + 307 + 7,161 + 2,613
Total	67,418	47,609	+ 19,809

classification has been adopted both in the matter of grouping and in the name given to the newly recognised group. Not only are the Lolos the most important of the tribes comprised, but their language is the foundation for the languages of the remaining tribes, Lahu, Lisu and Akha being scarcely more than dialects of some original Lolo tongue. The six members of this group may be considered as falling into three divisions, Lolo, Lahu and Kwi forming one closely associated division, Akha or Ako forming a second, while Lisu by itself is the third. The increase in numbers of the tribes of this group is due partly to the extension of census limits and partly to the extension of tribal classification to the population on the northern boundaries of the Myitkyina District and the Northern Shan States. Perhaps the most significant ethnical fact to record about the members of this group is the rapidity of their absorption by the Chinese. It has proceeded furthest among the Lolo, the parent tribe of the group, because it has been brought most closely into contact with the absorbing race. Among the tribes to be found within the Burmese frontier the process of assimilation has had the least effect, partly

because they are more remote from contact with the Chinese, and partly because only peaceful methods of penetration are possible. These tribes however have large numbers of members outside the Burmese borders in contact with an advancing Chinese population. Moreover an administrative boundary is but a partial bar to racial expansion. The transformation of the transfrontier Lisus into



Chinamen in the valley of the Shweli has its effect on the Lisus within the Burmese borders. The transformation of the Akhas into the half Chinese race, the Ako, beyond the frontier has been brought within the boundaries of the province by the migrations of the Akos into Kengtung. Even the Lahu, the tribe of this group offering the most strenuous resistance to Chinese aggression and expansion, have succumbed, and are gradually adopting Chinese dress, customs, and language.

297. The Lolos.—Though only an insignificant number of Lolos are to be found in Burma, they are the premier tribe of those included in this group. Their original home is in the Taliang Shan, a range of mountains lying between the valleys of the Chien-chang and the Yang-tse. Here the Lolos live governed by their own chiefs and independent of Chinese rule. Continuing the description by means of an extract from the frequently quoted work of Major Davies:—

"From here they have spread very widely over the neighbouring part of western San-chiam, and a athwards throughout the province of Yun-nan. They are certainly the next universal and widely-spread tribe of western China. Westward they are found on the Burness border about lat. 23° 40' and even just within Burmese territory. Eastwards they extend to the very extreme borders of Yun-nan and even into Kuei-chou province (lat. 27°

20', long. 105°). Northward in Ssu-ch'uan they reach nearly if not quite to the 30th parallel of latitude. Southwards they have spread into the Ssu-mao district well below lat. 23°. Over a very large part of Yun-nan they form the bulk of the hill population, and they are certainly the most numerous of all the non-Chinese tribes in that province. The Lolos of Ssu-ch'uan are a very line tall race, with comparatively fair complexions, and often with straight features, suggesting a mixture of Mongolian with some more straight-featured race. Their appearance marks them as closely connected by race with the eastern Tibetans, the latter being if anything rather the bigger men of the two. Further south in Yun-nan the pure Lolo type has perhaps somewhat deteriorated, but even here one often finds tall and fairly straight-featured people, and they are always a finer race physically than the Lisos, Lahus, Wonis and other Lolo-speaking tribes."

The following extract from the same work will indicate the extent to which Chinese influence is spreading among the tribes of the Lolo group:—

"Of the Lolos of Yun-nan there can be no doubt that many are being gradually absorbed by the Chinese. I have come across villages in all stages of this process. Some have gone so far as to talk Chinese among themselves and to deny their Lolo origin. Still there are large numbers of this race who still retain their language and customs. One of the largest of these tribes are the people whom the Chinese call Meng-hua Lolo or Meng-hua Jen. As their name indicates they inhabit the district of Meng-hua Ting (lat. 25° 15′, long. 100° 20′); and they form almost the entire population of the hills of these parts. Southwards this branch of the race extends to the Yang-pi river, and a few scattered villages of them are found much further south. The men here dress in Chinese fashion. The women wear blue trousers with a blue skirt over them both reaching to the knee: the jacket is of the same colour and has no sleeves. Chinese influence is gradually extending here? the men can all speak Chinese and some can read and write it. In a few more generations the Lolo language will very likely die out here."

298. The Lisus.—The headquarters of the Lisu tribe lies in the valley of the Salween on the easterly border of the Myitkyina District, extending northwards

beyond the boundary of the administered territory. Its members are of a roving disposition, and they can be found in small scattered communities in the valley of the Taiping river on the eastern borders of the Bhamo District, in the Shweli valley between the Ruby Mines District and the Northern Shan States, and even so far south as the State of Kengtung in the Southern Shan States. The members of such southern communities mingle with the various races with whom they come into contact, and

Lisu Tribe				
1911	•••	8,487 1,427		
Increase		7,060		

various races with whom they come into contact, and gradually acquire the customs and characteristics of their neighbours. They are specially susceptible to Chinese influences intermarrying readily with the Chinese and readily adopting the Chinese race and designation. Many of the so-called Chinamen of the Upper Shweli valley are the descendants of the Lisus and the Chinese with whom they intermarried. The Lisu are to be found in their primitive state only in the valley of the Salween to the east of the Myitkyina District. Here they are quite independent of Chinese influences from the east and the Kachin pressure on the west. It is impossible to estimate their true numbers. The improvement of census enumeration and racial classification on the north-eastern frontier has resulted in a large increase in the numbers recorded in the census schedules, but it is probable that the majority are to be found beyond the administrative limits of the province. For particulars concerning the latest researches into the manners and customs of this tribe reference must be made to the work on Yunnan by Major Davies, and to the paper on the Lisu tribes of the Burma-China frontier by Messrs. Rose and Brown published in the Memoirs of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Volume III, No. 4 of 1910.

299. The Lahus and Kwis.—The Lahus or Muhsos, in Burma, are settled principally in the eastern portion of the Southern Shan States. Their language

like that of the Lisu is simply a dialect of Lolo. Originally descending the valley of the Salween with the remaining tribes of the Lolo migration they followed a middle course down the valley of the Mekong, the Lisus pursuing a more westerly route down the Salween, and the main branch spreading in an easterly direction over the hill ranges of Yunnan. Their course down the Mekong valley brought them into contact with the Was. They forced themselves through the Wa country into the eastern portions of the

Lahus.	
1911	18,103
Increase	2,329

through the Wa country into the eastern portions of the Southern Shan States. Both their dialect and their race has been modified by contact with the Was, though their speech still remains primarily a dialect of Lolo.

They now occupy a situation between the Salween and the Mekong partly in the eastern portion of the Southern Shan States, partly in Chinese territory and partly in Northern Siam. This area has been but slightly affected by changes in census

Kwis.	
1911 1901	3,189
Increase	307

limits and the comparison between the numbers recorded in 1900 and 1901 is a legitimate representation of their numbers in Burma at these periods. It is however impossible to estimate what proportion the numbers recorded in Burma bears to the total membership of the tribe as large numbers live in Chinese territory. Although the Lahus have been strenuous opponents of Chinese extension in the

past they have been subdued and are gradually being assimilated by intermarriage and the adoption of Chinese dress and customs. The Kwis or Lahu-hsi are simply the most southern branch of the Lahus to be found in the Southern Shan States.

300. The Akha and Ako.—The Akhas or Kaws and the Ako really form two branches of the same tribe. The Akos have not been long resident in Burma having

Tribe.	1911.	1901.	Increase.
Akha	33,181	26,020	7,161
Ako		1,506	2,613

migrated from over the border into the eastern portion of the Kengtung State a few generations ago. They are of hybrid race being an admixture of trans-frontier Akhas with the Chinese. Both tribes are included by the Chinese in the general term Wo-ni, which includes all those tribes living

in Southern Yunnan speaking dialects of the Lolo language. Though of Lolo origin, their dialects do not show close affinities with those of the Lisu, the Lahu and the Kwi, and must have been derived from the parent stock in a different manner and at a different period. They occupy a territory comprising the eastern portion of the Kengtung State, the adjoining French Lao States and a portion of Southern Yunnan. Like all the tribes of the Lolo group they assimilate readily with the Chinese.

301. The Kuki-Chin Group.—The Kuki-Chin group of tribes inhabits the territory extending from the Naga Hills in the north down into the Sandoway District of Burma in the south; from the Myittha river on the east almost to the Bay of Bengal in the west. Only a portion of this region lies within the province of Burma, the northern and western portions falling into the province of Assam. The Gazetteer of the Chin Hills by Messrs. Carey and Tuck is the main source of information for the tribes dwelling within the administrative area of the Chin Hills, All the remaining information available concerning the tribes within Burmese limits has been condensed in various official publications, including the Upper Burma Gazetteer, the Census Report of 1901, and the fourth volume of the series published in connection with the Ethnographical Survey of Burma. It is impossible to present a complete statistical analysis of the tribes of the Kuki-Chin group to be found within the limits of the province of Burma. In the heart of the Chin country is a large area of unadministered territory belonging nominally to the Northern Arakan District and to the Pakokku Hill Tracts. An estimate has been made for the population of the unadministered portion of the Pakôkku Hill Tracts, and the numbers estimated have been allotted to their tribal divisions. But no attempt whatever has been made to enumerate or estimate the tribes in the unadministered portion of the Northern Arakan District, which comprises an area of 3,733 square miles. The existence of this area in the heart of the Chin territory precludes the

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Millioth i George	tuit.	1/01.	Increase,
All and to specified	175,163	35.315	139,843
Lageria.	1311313	177,272	- 47.96)
A STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STA	5,843	214,647	91,379

possibility of estimating the number of persons belonging to each respective tribe. It is extremely doubtful if a complete list of the communities having an independent tribal existence could be prepared from existing materials. To increase the difficulty, the racial and tribal instability which is to be

found throughout the province appears to have reached its maximum among the Hulia especially those residing in what is now the administrative area of the Chin Cill. At the time of the publication of the Gazetteer (1895) the tribes within this territory were as a stage of transition, being gradually brought from a state of xemina an administration under which peace and security were as stad. Moreover, although the number of unspecified Chins has I windshed is the also dately and relatively as compared with those in the records of

1901, there still remain 131,323 Chins not allotted to any specified tribe. It is true that the majority of these are Southern Chins who have lost their tribal organisation on coming into contact with the Burmese. But a considerable number still remain who are recorded as Chins in default of a correct enquiry as to their tribal designation. In the absence of a thorough knowledge of the constituent tribes comprising the Kuki-Ghin Group within the province, and of a logical scheme of classification based on ethnical considerations, the figures for the group as a whole will first be considered, and the figures for the separate tribes will then be treated according to the administrative areas in which they fall.

The increase in numbers of the members of the Kuki-Chin Group by 91,879 to a total population of 306,486 has been largely due to the inclusion of the Chin tribes of the Pakôkku Hill Tracts for the first time into the racial record. This has accounted for an increase of 26,053. There has also been a much closer enumeration of the tribes of the Chin Hills, the Chin population rising from 83,795 to 117,588, an increase of 33,793. The same may also be said of the enumeration of the Chins in the regular districts of the province. Living as they do in the hills on the extreme borders of such districts, administrative control over them has been but slight in the past. It has gradually strengthened and enabled the census enumeration to be more effective than has hitherto been possible. There are thus three factors which contribute to a large increase in the Chin population since 1901. To the natural increase of births over deaths must be added the closer enumeration resulting from more effective control over the region occupied by the Chins, and the inclusion of the Pakôkku Hill Tracts within the limits of racial classification. Only the last of these three factors is capable of accurate determination.

302. Chins unspecified.—The entry of the word Chin in the census enumeration schedule may mean either that the person returned belongs to one of the numerous tribes of the Kuki-Chin Group, but that his tribe has not been ascertained, or it may be used in its more restricted sense to denote a member of one of the southern or tame Chins who dwell on the borders of the regular districts on each side of the Arakan-Yomas. The exact connotation of the term in its more restricted meaning as given by Mr. Houghton is as follows:—

"The Southern or tame Chins, as they are sometimes called to distinguish them from the Northern or wild Chins inhabit both sides of the Arakan-Yomas and are found in the Akyab, Kyaukpyu and Sandoway districts on the west, and the Minbu, Thayetmyo, Prome and Henzada districts on the east. They are very closely related to the wild Chins, Mros, Kamis, etc., for though the languages of these are mutually unintelligible, a comparison of their vocabularies shows the difference to be merely one of dialect, and philologically of no great importance. The tame Chins are in fact merely a tribe which formerly inhabited the present Lushai or wild Chin country, and which has been forced south by a vis a tergo at probably no very distant epoch. This movement to the southward is still going on, though slowly, for tribes and clans must be very hard-pushed indeed before they definitely abandon their ancestral hills and valleys. There is a tendency-amongst the southernmost Chins to merge into the Burman race, and this is also the case amongst those who have gone farthest from the Yoma to the eastward."

On leaving the turbulent northern regions, the necessity for a close tribal organisation to ensure safety and security becomes less imperative. Groups and combinations formed with special reference to particular needs find but little power of cohesion when the necessities dictating their formation have been removed. On arrival at a locality where tribal divisions are not necessary to individual existence they are rapidly discarded and assimilation with the inhabitants of the neighbourhood is gradually accomplished. In this manner a comparative uniformity has been established among the Southern Chins. The figures for the Khami tribe classed by Mr. Houghton as wild Chins in the Akyab District are most instructive as an illustration of this tendency. In 1901, there were 11,595 members of this tribe in the Akyab District. In 1911, it numbered only 2,727 members. In the short interval of ten years the tribal distinction has almost vanished, and its members have assimilated themselves, or claim to have assimilated themselves, with the general body of Southern Chins where such distinctions are no longer necessary.

303. Tribes and Clans of the Chin Hills.—The influence on racial development exercised by administration is strikingly illustrated by a comparison of the conditions prevailing in the regularly administered areas of the province and those areas but recently brought under administrative control. In the former tribal distinctions rapidly vanish and racial uniformity gradually begins to extend. The Chin Hills Gazetteer shows a region just emerging from an era of absence of

central control tending towards tribal divisions, and being brought under conditions somewhat similar to those under which the racial uniformity of the Southern Chins Numerous tribal divisions still remain, the period elapsing since has developed. the conditions were changed having been too short to produce more than superficial changes. The quotations given have been selected partly with a view to indicating the effect of changing circumstances on tribal organisation. and clans of the Chin Hills Administrative Area can be divided into three more or less associated groups which may for convenience be called the Northern, the Tashon, and the Baungshe groups. The first of these, the northern group, includes the Thados with their associated tribes the Yos and the Nwitis, the Soktes, including the Kanhow clan, and the Siyins. The headquarters of the Thados lies beyond the border, in the hills of Manipur, and the majority of the Nwitis have been driven from their homes in Chinland only a small remnant remaining. In the Gazetteer, the Soktes, the Siyins and the Thados are treated as separate tribes, but there are many points of close association which suggest their inclusion in one common The Soktes, the Siyins and the Nwitis all trace their origin to Chin Nwe, a village nine miles from Tiddim. The following extracts from the Gazetteer, to which reference must be made for fuller information, indicate the influences operating to produce the present grouping of tribes.

"The Yo tribe three generations back occupied the tract of country now inhabited by the Kanhow clan of Soktes, and many of the Kanhow villages are inhabited still by Yos,

Thado			1,009
Yo			3,918
Nwiti	•••	•••	832
Sokte			11,368
Kanhow	•••		10,882
Siyin			3,127
Tashon	•••	•••	10,606
Yahow		•••	13,568
Ngawn	•••		3.831
Whenoh	•••		3,383
Kwangli	•••		3,701
Baungshe			12,416
Khang			6,926
Yokwa			2,849
Shintaung			7,918
Laiyo			6,403
Yotun	•••		8,949
Chins (uns	pecifi	ied)	5,902
To	otal	•••	117,588

whose tribal name has given way to that of Kanhow. As has been shown in a previous chapter, Kantum, the Sokte, conquered all the inhabitants right up to the borders of Manipur, and Kanhow, his son, founded Tiddim village and ruled the newly acquired conquests of his father. The conquered Yos thus became known as 'Kanhowte,' Kanhow's men, and as they intermarried with the Soktes who settled north with Kanhow, there is now no real difference between the conquerors and the conquered. Soktes, Yos, and Kanhows are practically one people, though no Sokte Chief would admit that he is not of superior birth to a Yo. The Yos who still live in the Chin Hills are treated as Soktes. The great majority of them live in the Kanhow tract and are subordinate to Howchinkup. For many years past, as is shown in the Manipur records, numbers of emigrants crossed the Northern Chin border and settled down along the south of Manipur plain, west of the longitude of Howbi peak and in the hills south of Cachar. These Yos as well as the Thados and Nwites are called by the Manipuris Kukis or Khongjais, who only made their acquaintance after they had migrated north, but the people call themselves by the name of Yo.

"The Nwites, common with the Northern Chins, believe that they are the descendants of the man and woman who fell from the clouds on to the earth at Chin Nwe. From Manipur records and from the lips of old tribesmen who know that formerly the Nwites owned large villages around the present posts of Tiddim. But now these village-sites are either deserted or occupied by Kanhows, and the Nwites have left Chinland and have settled down on the southern border of Manipur and the north-east corner of Lushailand.

southern border of Manipur and the north-east corner of Lushailand.

"The Nwites have not totally disappeared from the Chin Hills. The large village of Wunkatee is inhabited chiefly by Nwites who, however, are subordinate to the Sokte Chief and who for all intents and purposes are Soktes. There are also Nwites at Hele village in

the Nwengal country, as well as a few families amongst the Kanhows.'

The Tashons or Shunklas occupy the central portion of the Chin Hills around Falam as centre. They may be divided into nine subdivisions, but of these only four, besides those included in the generic name for the group, come into the census records. They are the Yahow, the Ngawn, the Whenoh and Kwangli clans or families. The nature of the forces operating to produce cohesion among the members of this tribe can be gathered from the following extracts from the Chin Hills Gazetteer:—

"It is probable that the information contained in this book, concerning the past history of the Siyin and Sokte tribes, is practically all that will ever be known about them, but the present history of the Tashons is incomplete, and can doubtless be largely added to in the future. The latter, instead of helping us to learn their antecedents, have put every obstacle in our way, even to the extent of threatening heavy penalties to any one who should disclose their past history and their present dealings with their subordinates and tributaries. They fear that if we understand how heavily burthened the people are with taxation and how down-trodden and bullied they are, we may interfere in their behalf, even in the same manner as we removed the Tashon yoke from the necks of the Siyin and Sokte tribes and declared them independent.

"After the Shunklas had founded Falam they gradually brought all their neighbours, both relations and aliens, under their control. When we occupied Chinland we found the

Tashons numerically the most powerful tribe in the hills, though we believe that had our occupation been deferred for two or three years, the Yahows would have been broken from their bondage, and Rumklao and Minkin would have declared for Haka, in which case the Tashons would have suffered in prestige as well as in possessions. The Tashon tribesmen, unlike the Siyins and the Soktes, do not claim one common progenitor. They are a community composed of aliens, who have been collected under one family by conquest, or more correctly by strategy.

"The disarmament of the Tashons is but a matter of time, and probably of a very short Should the Political Officer find that all the tribesmen mean to fight, he can in all probability break the Tashon combination by promising the Yahows freedom from the Tashon yoke provided they remain neutral and surrender their arms after the Shunklas,

Kwungli, Rumklao, and Minkin have been disarmed.

"The Whenoh community consists of Lushais who have been left behind in territory which is now a part of Chinland, but which formerly was inhabited by Lushais. They were driven west by the Chins across the Tyao and later still were forced further west and across the Tuipi river. When we first came here there were no Lushais living between the Tuipi and the Tyao, but now that raiding has been stopped the Lushais can and doubtless will

avail themselves of the opportunity to return and rebuild in the now uninhabited tracts.

"From the foregoing pages it will be gathered that the Shunklas of Falam rule a heterogeneous community composed of various aliens, who far out-number the ruling tribe. The fact that they have acquired and maintained their rule over all these people speaks well for their power of administration. They hold their position, not so much through their prowess in the field as through the ingenuity which has enabled them to play off one sept

against another and thus uphold their rule over the whole.
"This year has been the partial disarmament of the south, and now that the northern and southern tribes are disarmed, the Tashons recognize that their turn comes next and they are very awkwardly placed. If they surrender their guns, their power will be diminished and their prestige lowered; if, on the other hand, they fight, they are certain to be beaten, their fine capital will be at the mercy of the troops, and Government as a punishment may split up the present Tashon possessions into two or three independent chieftainships, Falam retaining the Shunklas, Kweshins, Torrs, etc., whilst the Yahows and the Whenohs would be independent of the Tashons and directly subordinate to the Assistant Political Officer at independent of the Tashons and directly subordinate to the Assistant Political Officer at Falam. Exactly in the same way Klangklang and Yokwa are subordinate to the Assistant Political Officer at Haka, and the four class of Siyins are each directly under the Assistant Political Officer at Tiddim."

The Baungshes or Lais occupy the southern portion of the Chin Hills jurisdiction extending over the southern border into the territory of the Pakôkku Hill A number of clans claim to be included as Lais, but only the Hakas and Klangs or Klang-klangs are universally acknowledged to have a right to the title. The Klangs, Yokwas, Shintaungs, Laiyos and Yotuns are the only clans which have been recorded, the Hakas being entered under the designation of Baungshe. A few extracts from the Chin Hills Gazetteer are given from which it will be seen that tribal divisions are neither distinctive nor permanent:-

"The Chief of the Haka tribe claim supremacy over villages containing the aggregate nearly 3,000 houses, having an estimated population of 15,000 persons, 4,000 of whom are fit to bear arms. Their northern border runs in the longitude of Hairon; the Pao stream dividing them from the Tashons, whilst the Shimu Tlang, with its continuations, is their frontier with the Yahows. No natural features divide the Hakas, Klang-klangs, and Yahows, and most of the villages on these borders are influenced by two or even all three clans. In the south they are checked by the strong group of villages of which Naring is the chief and which has successfully kept their independence. Their territory on the west was curtailed by us when we made the Boinu the division between the Chin and South Lushai Hills.

"The Yokwa tribe contains 13 villages comprising rather more than 500 houses. Its population may be estimated at under 2,500 persons. The people claim to be Lais, and although this is disputed by the Hakas, the two tribes intermarry. The two dialects differ, yet intelligent people of both tribes readily understand each other. The Kenmwe family is the most influential but the hereditary principle is not well developed amongst the Yokwas, and on several occasions people, unconnected with this family, have led the tribe. Thus Lyen Son, who was Chief of Yokwa when we first came into the hills, had only the right of a ready knife

and a tireless tongue to his possession. Now that he is dead Ratyo, who is not in the direct line of the descent of the Yokwa Chiefs, is perhaps the most influential of all the Yokwas. "There are some 45 independent villages administered from Haka; these contain nearly 3,500 houses and have an estimated population of over 17,000 persons. They are inhabited by Yotuns; Shintangs, Lawtus, Yos and Lais, and have all more or less intermarried. The Yotuns are the most numerous, while the Lais have the most influence. The majority of the Yos live beyond our frontier towards Arakan, and Lunsoi, Ngapai and Soipi, which are influenced by the Haka Chiefs, are the only Yo villages, although the Lawtu villages of Nagrin, Kwahrang Tangaw and Shurgnen are very closely allied to the Yos." villages of Nagrin, Kwahrang, Tangaw and Shurgnen are very closely allied to the Yos."

304. Tribes of the Pakôkku Hill Tracts.—Four tribes are recorded as being found within the limits of the Pakôkku Hill Tracts. The Chinboks are numerically the most important and are found in the northern portion of the territory. It is probable that the figures give an accurate representation of their numerical strength. The Yindus recorded are found in the central portion and the Chinbons in the southern portion of this administered area. Their numbers are in all proba-

Trile.		Number of persons.
Chinbak Chinben Baungshe Yindu	***	18,179 1,600 1,914 4,348
Total	•••	25,051

bility incomplete, as they extend beyond its boundaries into the Northern Arakan and Akyab Districts, where they are either outside census limits and therefore unrecorded, or are entered merely as Chins without any tribal specification. The few Baungshes returned are found close to the border of the Chin Hills jurisdiction. They would not probably be recognised as true Lais by the members of the central Haka and Klang tribes, and belong probably to the independent tribes which have come under the influence of the Lais without being incorporated into their

more central clans.

305. Minor Chin Tribes in Akyab and Northern Arakan Districts.— The Kyaws or Chaws are an insignificant tribe settled on the banks of the Kaladan river in the Northern Arakan District, their total number amounting to 249 persons. According to tradition they are descendants of pagoda slaves settled in the locality by an Arakanese queen about three centuries ago. They are hardly distinguishable in dress and appearance from the Bengali peasantry of Chittagong. The number of the Anu tribe recorded is 479. This is no indication of the numerical strength of the tribe which extends beyond the limits of the census area into the unadministered territory of the Northern Arakan District. The headquarters of the M'hangs, who have entered the records to the number of 23, is outside the administered boundaries. The tribe of the Thets or Saks has practically disappeared, numbering only 79 in the census records. It is extremely doubtful if there is any connection between this remnant and the Saks who were at one time one of the most important of the Burmese tribes in the Irrawaddy valley. In all probability they are an Arakanese-Chin Hybrid. They are only found in the Akyab District.

306. Chin Tribes of the Upper Chindwin District.—Only two distinct Chin tribes, the Hawchits and the Nagas have been recorded in the Upper Chindwin District, the great majority coming within census limits having been entered merely as Chins unspecified. The Naga country is excluded from our administration, although there are large numbers within the political frontier living in the unadministered territory. Their inclusion in the census returns indicates a tendency to migrate towards the regularly administered portion of the Chindwin District.

The following description obtained by Mr. Page, Subdivisional Officer of Buthidaung, from enquiries among the Daingnets themselves may be accepted as their own traditional account of their origin:

"The Daingnets are a quiet agricultural folk living in out-of-the-way parts of the country. They either work paddy land where they have cleared the jungle round the foot of the hills or practise taungya cultivation. They seem to have been pushed into the back-

of the hills or practise taungya cultivation. They seem to have been pushed into the background by the Chittagonians who are rapidly spreading everywhere.

"The Daingnets say that they originally lived near the Kantha chaung in the Chittagong District. There they had their own Rajahs of whom the names of the last three are given as Chweman, Zampasa and Darampasa. In the time of Darampasa the Daingnets moved over into Arakan bringing their wives and children with them. The date of this migration is put at something over 50 years ago and the reason for it seems to have been made to account and the lating of much chapter in Arakan than in Chittagong at the time. mainly economic, paddy being so much cheaper in Arakan than in Chittagong at the time.

"There are said to be eight different kinds or tribes of Daingnets, the language of some differing as much as Burmese and Arakanese. The Daingnets living in Arakan have no written language of their own. Such as are literate employ the Burmese language. They say that the Daingnets still living in Chittagong district have a written language of their own

but it is unknown to those living in Arakan.

"From childhood the Daingnets of Arakan pick up both Chittagonian and Arakanese so that a large number of words from both these languages have become incorporated in their language. Of these incorporated words there seems to be a larger proportion of Chittagonian and this no doubt has led to the belief that the Daingnet language is merely a corrupt form of Chittagonian.

The marked decrease in the number of the persons recorded as Daingnets indicates that they are gradually ceasing to exist as a separate tribe and are being absorbed into the general Chin community exactly as is the case with the Khamis of the Akyab District.

309. The Khamis.—The Khamis are a Chin tribe now settled on the Kaladan river in the Akyab and Northern Arakan Districts. Previously they were located

in the hills of the unadministered territory but in the latter part of the 19th century they moved westwards and drove the Mros from the valley of the Kaladan. They now share the valley and its bordering hills with the Chaungthas, an Arakanese tribe which has separated from the main branch. The numbers of the tribe show a large decrease amounting to 8,565 since the census of 1901. This is largely due to the fact that in the Akyab district a large number of its

Khamis.				
1901	•••	16,372 24,937		
Decrease		8,565		

members previously recorded under their tribal designation have been recorded simply as Chins. The marginal statement indicates the extent to which this change has affected the figures, the gain in the one category

balancing the loss in the other. It is an illustration of the difficulties of a corre ct classification of the Chin tribes to note, that in Volume IV of the Series of the Ethnographical Survey of Burma although Mr. Lowis deals separately with the Khamis and the Mros on the ground that they have for the past forty years formed the subject of independent observation, yet their ethnographical

Akyab District,						
- 1911. 1901. Increase of Decrease.						
Chin Khami	19,081 2,727	9,41 <b>5</b> 11,595	+ 9,666 - 8,868			

status is by no means yet determined. Whether the Mros were originally Chin or Arakanese, or Burmese is a much discussed question, and as regards the Khamis Mr. Lowis in 1910 considered that it still remains to be decided whether they are more closely connected with the Yindus, or the Chins of the Chin Hills proper, or whether they can claim a joint ancestry with the Lushais. All that can be said of them is that like the remaining Chins they came from the north and established themselves on the western edge of the Chin country in the basin of the Kaladan, and that the most southern branches of the tribe in the Akyab District are losing their identify and becoming assimilated with the southern or tame Chins of the regular districts of the province.

310. The Kachins.—In a bibliographical summary to a monograph on the Kachins published by Dr. Wehrli, a list of 144 works of reference is given. It is not intended to supplement this mass of information by any description of the Kachins, their tribes, divisions and customs. The Census Reports for 1891 and 1901, in themselves afford sufficient information for a study of the figures now presented. Prior to the census local officers were consulted as to the possibility. presented. Prior to the census, local officers were consulted as to the possibility.... of obtaining separate figures for the five tribes, the Marips, the Latawngs, the Lapais, the Nkhums and the Marans. But it was decided that in view of the small

Kachin.	1911.	1901.		icrease Decrease.
Myitkyina Northern Shan States.	33,034 73,578	12,955 5,938	++	20,079 67,640
Rest of Burma	55,756	45,512	+	10,244
Total	162,368	64,405		97,963

number of literate enumerators available any such attempt must necessarily fail, Consequently the entry in the column for "Caste, Tribe or Race" was limited in the majority of instances to the simple designation "Kachin." Some enumerators attempted a more elaborate division, but the numbers of such differentiated entries

were so small that they are of no value in estimating the total number of members The increase of 97,963 persons on an original total of 64,405 is not due to the natural increase of the Kachins dwelling within the limits of the province. Several other factors contribute to this result. In the Northern Shan States, the Kachin Districts of North Hsenwi have now been enumerated for the first time and the racial classification of its population rendered possible. The increase of 67,640 persons within this territory is therefore to be attributed mainly to this extension of regular census limits. Similarly in Myitkyina District, areas previously estimated, and therefore not subject to racial classification, have been brought within the regular census area, and a large portion of the increase of 20,079 persons in this district must be attributed to this cause. But apart from the extension of census limits northwards there is a steady pressure of Kachins in a south-easterly direction from beyond the administrative border and from Chinese territory into the administered portion of the province. The Kachin invasion which entered Burma rather to the west of the Irrawaddy is now diverging eastwards. Its line of least resistance has skirted the boundary of the regularly administered districts in an easterly direction. Crossing from the valleys of the Chindwin and the Malikha (the western tributary of the Irrawaddy) it entered the valley of the Nmai Hka (the eastern branch of the Irrawaddy) and there intercepted the southern migration of the Marus, the Lashis and Tsis. Having surrounded these tribes and rendered their ultimate absorption inevitable, it still proceeded in a south-easterly direction, driving the Palaungs from the hills to the east of the Myitkyina and Bhamo districts and forcing them southwards into the eastern portions of the Ruby Mines District and into the Northern Shan States. Although the Palaungs have made a determined stand against the Kachin invasion, the southern movement of the Kachin tribes continues. But other races than the Palaungs have begun to feel the pressure of the invasion. Each year they They have established settlements on the fringe of the spread a little further. Wa country and threaten the Shans with a wholesale invasion which may cause serious administrative problems in future. The Shans are becoming aware of the danger that may ensue from Kachin intrusion and are taking steps to prevent any Kachins from entering their territory. This has resulted in a still more easterly deflection of the Kachin movement, and at present it is progressing principally within Chinese territory skirting along the northern boundary of the Northern Shan States.

Although the present census area, and the possibility of racial classification, have been extended, the record of the number of Kachins is still far from complete. Any estimate of the numbers beyond the administrative boundary is a mere guess, but it is probable that they exceed those who have been brought within the scope of the enumeration. It is a matter of some difficulty to gauge exactly the extent to which each of the four contributory factors has contributed to their large increase of numbers, but it is possible to assign them to their correct order of The first place must be assigned to the extension of the area of racial classification and the second to the southern and south-easterly migration of the Kachins which is bringing them in increasing numbers into the administered The natural increase of the populaarea in which their enumeration is possible. tion by the ordinary excess of births over deaths occupies the third place and the fourth but by no means insignificant factor in the increase is the slow and gradual absorption of the other races with whom the Kachins come into contact, the three tribes, the Marus, the Lashis and the Tsis showing the highest degree of assimila-Hitherto there has been no question of an ethnical conflict between the Kachins and the Burmese. The Kachins, being a hill race, have avoided the plains and valleys where the Burmese flourish. But apart from the three small tribes mentioned above, the Chins, the Palaungs, the Was, and the Shans have all felt the pressure of their onward movement. The gradual extension of the area under administrative control renders peaceful penetration the only possible method of southward extension. To what extent it will succeed and what will be the effect of the movement on the Kachins themselves, and on the races with whom they come into contact cannot at present even be estimated. The following quotation from the report of 1901 is still pertinent:—

"Whatever the ultimate trend of their wanderings may be the Kachins are now with us, on this side of, as well as upon and beyond, our marches, and will long be a force to be reckoned with by our frontier administrators, for they are a pugnacious, vindictive. stiff-necked generation, and, when beyond our administrative border, are still apt to be turbulent and unreasonable.'

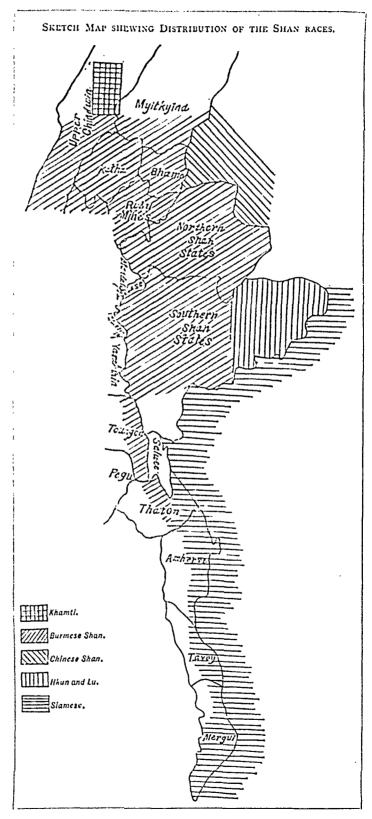
Mr. Thornton in describing the census operations in the Northern Shan States

reports:-

"The steady pressure οĹ Kachins southwards referred to in the last census has continued. Kachin settlers are discouraged by the Sawbwa of South Hsenwi, who is more particularly affected by the movement, and it is hoped that the tide of immigration has been turned eastwards through the Wa Country and into Mong Lem in China."

A greater proportion of their numbers is now within our borders. They are under closer control, but their masterful temperament and their racial virility are bound to assert themselves at the expense of the weaker races which happen to lie in their path.

3II. The Shans or Tais.—The Tai race is so widely and so peculiarly distributed that any logical divisions into its constituent parts is almost impossible. It is the most widely spread and the most numerous of all the races in the



Indo-Chinese peninsular. Linguistically the race is divided into two great divisions, the line of cleavage roughly coinciding with the Salween river. Although this boundary runs due north and south, the two linguistic groups have been designated the northern and southern rather than the eastern and western groups.

This is due to the obliquity of the general line of distribution of the race, extending as it does in a direction north-west and south-east from Assam to Siam. The group to the west of the Salween has therefore a far more northern location than the eastern group. The migrations of the Tai races have proceeded from their original home in south-western China. The pressure of the Chinese from the north-east and of the Burmese from the south have forced the Shans to assume their present oblique, elongated, and discontinuous distribution. Attempts have been made to effect a geographical classification as follows:-

(i) The South Eastern Shans.—The Siamese, the Lao, the Lu and the Hkun.

(ii) The South Western Shans.—The Shans of the Southern Shans States.

(iii) The North Eastern Shans .- The Shans of Western China.

(iv) The North-Western Shans.—The Shans of Upper Burma, the Khamtis and the Tai tribes of Assam.

This division is unsatisfactory in that it leaves the Shans of the Northern Shan States as an indeterminate central group, and moreover it is scarcely possible to apply a geographical quartering to the attenuated and discontinuous distribution of the members of the Tai race. The most logical method of classification appears

Cis-Salween Tribes.	Trans-Salween Tribes.
Tai Tribes of Assam Khamti.	Hkun and Lu.
	Lao. Siamese.

to be based on the undoubted linguistic differences found in the west and to the east of the Salween. On this basis the scheme suggested in the marginal statement, though not perfect, seems less open to objection than any alternative.

It would be easily possible by recognising all the claims to separate tribal existence to multiply indefinitely these six main divisions, but in the Upper Burma-Gazetteer a much needed protest is raised against the over-division resulting from the assumption that every local name given to a community by its neighbours necessarily possesses an ethnical significance. Widely diffused as the Shans are, and intermingling as they do so freely with the numerous races with whom they are in contact, numerous minor differences in customs and dialect have arisen. Magnified by a narrow and local perspective, and distinguished by separate designations, such differences tend to conceal rather than reveal the ethnical identity of any tribal group.

Of the seven main divisions of the Tai race only three appear in the census No distinction has been made between Burmese and Chinese Shans by

	Numerical Strength.			reaso (+)
Tribe.	1911.			rease(—).
Shan	926,879	787,087	+	139,792
Tai-Loi		15,660	-	15,600
Hkun	42,366	41,470	+	896
Lu	17.331	10,227	+	1,104
Dave	201	1,001	-	893
Siamese	9.643	31,590		24,247
Total	936,420	8,33,423		102 993

the enumerators, and they are both entered under the designation Shan. The memhers of one of the discontinuous Khamti States in the Upper Chindwin District were similarly entered as Shans. Hkun and Lu, in reality two branches of one tribe, were separately recorded. An insignificant number of the Daye, a Shan-Chinese hybrid community were entered, but the unsatisfactory and indeterminate term Tai-loi has fortunately disappeared

from the records. In one respect the warning against over-classification has been carried to excess. The substitution of the generic term "Shan" for the particular term "Siamese" has been adopted in every district but Mergui, where the large indigenous Stamese population naturally favoured a special record of their existence. But in other districts the Siameze have been entered as Shans. The vernacular (Shan and Siameze) terms for the two designations "Tai" and "Thai" are scarcely distinguishable, and the Siamese are generally known to the Burmese as Shang, and this has naturally led to identical entries where neither of the two races is indigenous. This confusion, though affecting the figures for the divisions in Joral, does not affect the figures for the members of the Tai race as a whole. There show an increase of 102,992 times 1901. Apart from natural increase, the extension of cenal; limits to include Kokung and West Manglun accounts for 16.474 The extension of racial elasinication to the Kachin Districts of North instricted to not greatly effect the number of Shans returned; neither is migration an experient factor. Allowing for disturbing influences the natural increase is some some also it the per cert, for the decide. This is a smaller percentage than for the older two main races of the province for which a rate of increase is calculated. The Burnous and Kuren groups with natural increases of twelve and a last sold filters, per cent. respectively, are proving better able than the Shans to

withstand contact with other races in an era of settled Government. There is a tendency, where the Shans are sparsely distributed and come into contact with the Kachins, the Burmans and the Chinese, for the Shans to gradually lose their language and racial characteristics. Where the Shans are concentrated they show a tendency to absorb the members of minor races such as the Hpons, the Maingthas and the Was. As to the variations of the members of the constituent divisions of the Shans, the divisions in themselves are of such doubtful import, the distinctive characteristics of each division are so vague, and the changes in the meaning of the divisional designations since 1901 are such, that there would be but little advantage to be obtained from a comparison of figures representing different facts at their respective dates of record.

312. The Tai Loi.—The Tai Loi or Hill Shans have disappeared from the census records. This term is one of the wide misleading terms which serve to conceal true ethnical divisions, and to facilitate the nominal transfer of tribes from one race to another. Originally the term was used to denote the members of the Wa tribe who had embraced Buddhism. Then its meaning extended to embrace any Buddhistic hill tribe. The change of religion was usually accompanied by a change in manners, customs and speech. All such tribes began to talk Shan and to claim to be Shans. The term has gradually been extended till it may mean any hill tribe either of Shan origin, or whose members claim to be Shans. The name originally imposed by the Shans to denote a definitely limited class, has been used to bridge over many ethnical divisions. A member of the Tai Loi if asked to state his race or tribe will suppress the "Loi" and simply reply that he is a Shan. The term has consequently not been used in the current census records, the members being returned under their more definite designations of "Shan" or "Wa" according to their real racial origin.

313. Tribes of the Sinitic Group.—The total figures for the tribes of the Karen or Sinitic racial group are for the first time complete in the records of the current census. Hitherto the exclusion of the Karenni Sub-

division of the Southern Shan States from the possibility of racial classification has rendered the figures but a partial presentation of the numbers of the Karen race. The total of 1,102,695 persons can be assumed to be as accurate as the conditions of census enumeration in Burma will allow. The whole, with the exception of the small number of 5,717 members of the Brè tribe who were the subject of an estimate, have been directly enumerated. The increase for the decade is 199,334, but of this amount, 63,628

Tribe.		Numerical	Increase (+1 or Decrease (-).		
		1911. 1901.			
Karen (unspec		872,823	717,859	+	154,966
Taungthu	•••	183,054	168,301	+	14,753
Karenni		19,008	4,936	+	14,072
Karennet	•••	3,721		+	3,721
Karenbyu	•••	790	•••	+	790
Zayein	•••	.1,981	4,440	+	541
Sinsin	••.	533	***	+	.533
Bré	• • • •	6,911	•••	+	6,911
Manö	• • •	1,445	•••	+	1,445
Yinbaw	••	911	•••	+	911
Padaung	•••	8,516	7,825	+	. 691
Total	•••	1,102,695	903,361	+	199,334

is due to the inclusion of the records for Karenni Subdivision. Without the extra area, the increase would have been 135,706, or approximately 15 per cent., a rate of increase which coincides closely with that for the population of Burma proper.

The Karens, of all the races to be found in the province, have intermingled least of all with the members of other races. It has already been recounted in this chapter how quietly and unobtrusively the progenitors of the Karens migrated from their original home in Western China to their headquarters in the Karenni Subdivision of the Southern Shan States. It has also been related in Chapter VII how the phenomenon of endogamy is to be found among the Karen tribes to a degree not known among any of the remaining races of the province. As a result of this ethnical isolation the Karens stand out as a highly individualised racial group. Linguistically, the Karens belong to the Siamese-Chinese sub-family, but the connection between the Shan and the Karen languages is so remote that the cleavage between the two races must have taken place in pre-migration times. There is nothing in the literature or legends or customs of either race to suggest any ethnical connection between them. A striking contrast exists between the mass of information available concerning the Karens as they exist at the present time and the paucity of anything approaching certainty as to their history. They have left no

impression whatever on the history of other races which would serve to check or substantiate their rather nebulous legends as to their origin. In the midst of communities who have readily amalgamated with whatever tribes and races happened to be in their immediate vicinity, the Karens alone have remained isolated and self-contained. The ready reception they have accorded to the teachings of Christianity has tended to strengthen their individuality as a racial group, and to widen the differences existing between them and the remaining indigenous races of the provinces. While the Talaings, at one time supreme over the whole of the deltaic portion of Burma, are being absorbed by the Burmese, there is no suggestion that any such absorption, or even that any amalgamation, between the Burmese and the Karen races is within the range of possibility. So far as past history and present tendencies indicate, the Karens, however much they may suppress and abolish their internal tribal divisions, will remain a distinct and progressive racial group.

314. The Sgau and Pwo Karens.—The Karens of the Deltaic plains are divided into two main divisions, the Sgau and the Pwo. At one time the division was

Sgau and I	wo K	arens.
1911	•••	872,825 717,859
Increase	••.	154,966

even more complete than the existence of separate languages would suggest, intermarriage between the two branches being regarded with great disfavour. There are, however, signs that the distinctions are gradually becoming less marked. The Sgau dialect is tending to drive out the Pwo, and the obstacles to intermarriage are much less formidable than formerly. One sure indication of the gradual decay of the distinction is the comparatively few entries of the distinctive names in the census schedules.

The increase of 154,966 for the decade amounts to 21 per cent. on the figures for 1901 and shows a considerably more rapid rate of increase than that for the population of the province as a whole. Part of the increase may, however, be due to the entry of some of the Taungthus as Karens, the rate of increase of the former not being equal to that for the province generally.

315. The Taungthus.—The Taungthus, a branch of the Pwo Karens, are to be found principally in the Thatôn District and in the south-western portion of Myelat of the Southern Shan States. They show an in-

Tav	ingthus	•
1911 1901	•••	183,054 168,301
Increase		14,753

Myelat of the Southern Shan States. They show an increase of 14,753 or slightly less than nine per cent. on the figures for 1901. This small rate of increase probably indicates a tendency towards the removal of internal tribal barriers among the Karens, and some Taungthus were undoubtedly entered simply as Karens in the census schedules. It is highly improbable that the Sgau and Pwo Karens should have an increase of 21 per cent. for the

Karens should have an increase of 21 per cent. for the decade while such a closely allied tribe as the Taungthus should increase by less than nine per cent. The Taungthus are fully described in the Upper Burma Gazetteer but in the account therein given, sufficient stress is not laid on the facts that the Taungthus are essentially of Karen race, and that they are of a distinctly different ethnical stock from the Taungyos with whom they are jointly described.

316. Bghai Karens.—In the Karenni Subdivision and in the adjoining Shan States are a group of Karen Tribes known as the Bghai. It is somewhere in this

Bghai Karens.				
Tribe.		Numbers.		
Karenni	•••	19,608		
Karennet		3,721		
Karenbyu	•••	790		
Zayein		4,981		
Sinsin	•••	533		
Bró	***	110,0		
Manō	•••	1,445		
Yinbaw	***	911		
Padaung	•••	8,516		
Total	•••	46,816		

vicinity that the Karens in their original migrations must have entered Burma. This southern extremity of the Southern Shan States was the locality adopted by the Karens as their headquarters. The Sgau, the Pwo and the Taungthu have departed and occupied the country to the north, west and south of this centre, modifying their primitive customs by their change of environment. The tribes that remained have retained their original customs to a much greater extent than those who have gone further afield. Among these there is a strong tendency to endogamy to which attention has already been drawn. Partly owing to this custom, and partly to the diversified nature of the country which they occupy, the Bghai Karens are split into a number of small tribes, nine of which appear in the

census returns. A full account of these tribes and their customs is to be found in the Upper Burma Gazetteer.

317. The Talaings.—The brief synopsis relating the probable conditions under which the Talaing race was evolved, given in the paragraphs relating to the

Mon-Khmer invasion and the early Munda influences operating at that period, seems an inadequate preparation for a consideration of the remnants of the race as represented in the census returns. To supply the missing links of the chain would be to write the history of Burma for nearly twenty centuries. Reference must be made to standard linguistic and historic treatises and to previous census reports for all intermediate particulars. It is impossible here to describe how the Mon-Khmer races once occupied

Та	laings.	
1911		320,629 321,898
Decrease	•••	1,269

practically the whole of the valley of the Irrawaddy; how they were separated and isolated by the Burmese and Shan invasions; how one branch was forced towards the coast and achieved cohesion as the Talaing race as the result of external pressure; how for centuries warfare was waged for supremacy between the Burmese, the Shans and the Talaings; how the latter at the middle of the eighteenth century were supreme from Mandalay to Martaban; and how in the interval they have been reduced to the small and vanishing remnant now presented in the census records. The last phase can be briefly sketched. With the conquest of Pegu by Alaungpaya in 1757 the Talaing language was discouraged by the Burmese. But it was not till the retirement of the British from Pegu in 1826 that its use was absolutely proscribed. It would have become extinct but for the migration of Talaings into Tenasserim, where under British rule it managed to exist until 1852, when the permanent occupation of Pegu by the British removed the ban. But the spirit of the race had been crushed in the interval and for a long time it scarcely resisted absorption by the Burmese.

There now appears to be a slackening in the rate of absorption of the Talaings by the Burmese. There is a slight decrease of 1,269 in the number of

Talaings in the ten years clapsing since 1901. Also the number of Talaings using their own form of speech is but a fraction (56 per cent.) of the whole. Yet the number of Talaing speakers has risen materially and indicates that there may be unsuspected stores of vitality in the race which may resist assimilation with the Burmese for many years to come.

Numbers speaking Talaing language.

1911 ... 179,443
1901 ... 154,483
Increase ... 24,960

Considerable discussion has been devoted to the derivation of the word Talaing, a name not recognised by

the Talaings or Mons themselves. The name cannot be traced back beyond the eighteenth century and the suggestion that the name is derived from Telingana, Telinga or Telinga seems to ignore the immense period of time which must have elapsed between the absorption of the Munda races of Burma by the Mons and first use of the name. Mr. Furnival, in his Gazetteer of the Hanthawaddy District, in a discussion on the subject is inclined to support Dr. Forchhammer's suggestion that the word is a compound of the Burmese numeral "one" and a Talaing word used as a numerative.

318. The Palaung-Wa Group of Tribes.—Many factors have contributed to the remarkable increase in the figures for this group of tribes. Among

them may be mentioned, the extension of census limits to include Kokang and West Manglun, the extension of racial classification to the Kachin Districts of North Hsenwi, the southern movement of the Palaungs pressed from the more northern hill ranges by the advance of the Kachins, improved administrative control over the area occupied by these tribes, and consequently greater facilities for more accurate enumeration, the abandonment of the indeterminate designation Tai Loi and the entry

Tribe.		Numerical Strength.		Increase (+)	
Inbe.		1911.	1501.	Deci	rease ().
Palaung Pale Vin (Riang) Wa En (In) Pyin Lamet Danaw		144,139 68 7,928 14,674 3,455 275 231	56,866  3,094 5,964  931 1,096 141 635	+++++++++	87,273 68 4,834 8,710 2,524 821 90 1,089
Total	[	172,494	68,727	+	103,767

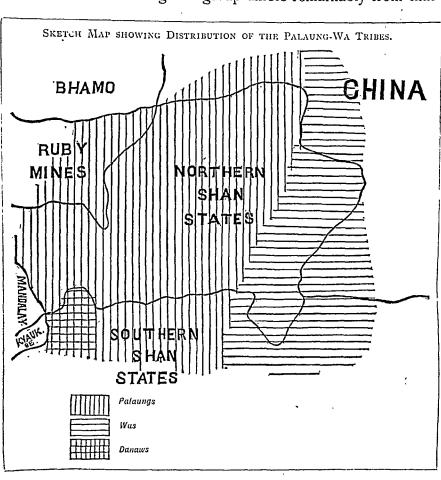
of its Wa members as Was, and finally the natural increase of births over deaths. The first of these factors can be measured accurately, the marginal statement

giving the numbers of these tribes found in the areas of Kokang and West Manglun. The other factors cannot be accurately gauged, but undoubtedly the one having the

Palaung-Wa tribes in extra census area.			
Tribe. Strengtl			
Palaung Wa Yin (Riang)	5,827 1,200 108		
Total .	7,135		

greatest numerical effect is the steady pressure of Kachins driving the tribes of the group southwards into administered territory. The eight tribes of the group fall into three divisions; the first containing the Palaungs, Pales and Yins or Riangs; the second containing the Was, Ens or Ins, Pyins and Lamets; while the Danaws, a Shan-Palaung hybrid tribe form the third. This group of tribes is one of the remnants of an extensive settlement of Mon-Khmer races over the greater portion of the area now comprising Burma and the Shan States. The Burmese and Shan invasions isolated it from the main branch, which was

invasions isolated it from the main branch, which was forced southwards to the sea and ultimately formed the Talaing race. The evolution of the Palaung-Wa group differs remarkably from that of the Talaings.



came into contact with, and absorbed, members comparatively civilised races. Moreover they developed in a spacious plain which facilitated the cohesion of all the; members into unified one The race. Palaung-Wa group on the contrary were cut off from with contact èxternal civiliinfluensing They ces. were isolated in a mountainous country which encourged the formation of small

tribal groups and ensured the continuance of primitive tribal customs. But for linguistic affinities it would not be possible to trace any connection between these obscure tribes, and the Talaings who have made such a deep mark on Burmese history.

319. The Palaungs, Pales and Riangs.—The Palaungs at the present time afford an illustration of the forces which have been working for centuries to

Pal	aungs.	
1911 1901	•••	144,139 56,866
Increase	• • •	87,273

effect the isolation of Wa-Palaung group of tribes. The process of hemming in, commenced by the Burmese and the Shans, is now being rigorously continued by the Kachins. The remarkable increase in their numbers, though due partly to other causes already mentioned, must be attributed in the main to the retreat southwards of the Palaungs in the face of the Kachin advance. This has been referred to by numerous officers in the past, and

Mr. Thornton, the Superintendent of the Northern Shan States, reports that the steady pressure of the Kachins southwards has continued. The Sawbwa of South Hsenwi has been discouraging the movement of Kachins into his state, and it is hoped that the tide of Kachin immigration has been turned still further eastwards into the Wa country and into China. But although the Kachin invasion may be turned aside the populations displaced by the Kachins tend to take refuge within the British

border. The Palaungs are peaceful, industrious and unaggressive, quite able to hold their own individually in matters of business with the Kachins. But collectively, they retire before the Kachin advance with scarcely any show of opposition. The increase in numbers indicates more than anything else a concentration of the Palaungs from territories beyond British control into the Möng Mit State of the Ruby Mines District and the Northern Shan States generally. Mr. Lowis considers that it is possible that the Riangs or Yins are nothing more nor less than a southern branch of the Palaungs. They speak a language resembling Palaung and like the Palaungs they are Buddhists. The numbers recorded in the census schedules afford no indication whatever of the strength of the Pales. The distinction between the Palaungs and the Pales is more or less arbitrary, the former designation being retained to the central and longer established branches of the tribe, the latter being given to its western branches. The attitude of superiority assumed by the Palaungs may account for the insignificant number of Pales recorded.

The literature concerning the Palaungs and their divisions and customs is rapidly growing. In addition to the detailed description in the Upper Burma Gazetteer, the first issue of the series of the Ethnographical Survey of Burma was a note by Mr. Lowis on the Palaungs of Hsipaw and Tawngpeng. It is hoped to supplement this by an appendix to the present report in the form of a monograph on the Palaungs of the Kodaung, by Mr. A. A. Cameron, Assistant Superintendent,

Kodaung Hill Tracts.

320. The Wa Tribes.—The Ens or Ins, the Pyins and the Lamets are but subdivisions of the Was, slight differences of dialect and customs having been

developed by the isolation resulting from residence in a mountainous country. Practically nothing has been added to the knowledge of these tribes since the extremely full account of them contained in the Upper Burma Gazetteer. The large increase in the numbers of the Was is not so much due to the inclusion of fresh areas, as to the abandonment of the indeterminate designation of "Tai Loi." According to its original meaning it comprised only people of Wa origin who had embraced Buddhism. But it is now

Was.			
1911	•••	14,674 5,964	
Increase		8,710	

loosely used to denote any Buddhistic hill tribe, or even any tribe of hill Shans. It is an example of the ill-defined ethnical boundary lines which are so common among all races in Burma. Enumerating officers decided not to use the term, with great advantage to the accuracy of the racial classification, but the change makes any comparison with previous figures a matter of conjecture. The diminution in the figures for the Pyins indicates a removal of tribal barriers and absorption by the main tribe. The Lamets are immigrants from Siamese or French territory.

321. The Danaws.—The most probable conjecture as to the origin of the Danaws, is that they are a Shan-Palaung hybrid Their language so far as it has been examined shows closer affinities to the Mon-Khmer forms of speech than to any other tongue. In appearance and customs there is nothing to distinguish them from the Shans. They inhabit the north-western portion of the Southern Shan States. Though in close proximity to the Danus, and though like the latter they are of hybrid race, the two are quite distinct. They have been frequently threatened with extinction but their numbers have risen from 635 to 1,724 in the past ten years. In common with all hybrid races there are indefinite possibilities of recruitment from the original contributary races.

322. The Miaos, and Yaos.—The small numbers of these tribes found in Burma have wandered far from their original headquarters. The Miao, or Miaotzu or M'hang, came from the Kueichou province of China.

They have but recently arrived three or four generations ago into Yunnan and Ssu-ch'uan, where they exist as small communities in the midst of a population of other races. A few villages are to be found in the Burmese Shan States and they appear for the first time in the Burmese census records. The following is from the description of the tribes, by Major Davies:—

Tribe.		Numerical strength.
Mino Yao	•••	6.16 512

"The headquarters of the Yao tribe is in the province of Kuang-hsi. Like the Miaos they are comparatively recent arrivals in Yunnan, and but a few have crossed the border into

the state of Kengtung. The Upper Burma Garetteer in the course of a lengthy description of the Vao tribes puts forward the suggestion that they are an off shoot or a half-breed race of the Miao."

323. The Salons or Mawken.—The following extracts from the "Introduction to the Mawken Language by the Rev. W. G. White," will serve to supplement the information concerning the Salons or Mawken of the Mergui archipelago which has already been published:—

"It is rather curious that no one mentions the fact that the people call themselves Mawken; this name has a reference to their past history; and the very structure of their

Salvas (	or Mawk	en.
1911	***	1,984 1,325
Increase	•••	659

boats and the name of the upper portion of the freeboard witness to the name and perpetuate the history of the Mawken. If the silence has been due to ignorance, it points to the fact that the Mawken have been studied from outside: through field-glasses and telephones, one might say. The name Mawken is made up of the two words, L'maw, to drown; and o'ken' salt-water, or 'the sea.' It means 'Drowned in the sea.' It is explained that, generations ago, when they were forced to take to living in boats, they did not make their craft high enough at the sides. When the south-west monsoon came on, boats were frequently swamped; and numbers of the people perished. Learning by sad

and numbers of the people perished. Learning by sad experience, they added to the height of the freeboard. This additional piece is called Maw (from L'maw). It is the drowning part. If it were not there, the people would be drowned, as of yore. This extra height of freeboard is marked off by a bamboo rib, which runs from

stern to stern, about nine inches below the top of the gunwale.

"Selone, Selong, Selung, Silong, Salon—all are various spellings of the name by which the Burmese and Talaings know them. This is the name by which the European hears of them. The Mawken call the Burmese, T'now, and the Malays, Batuk. But we do not go to the Mawken for their names. We prefer to call the Burmese by an anglicised form of that which they call themselves. The Mawken, likewise, have a right to be known by their

own name, especially as it is so significant.

The Mawken assert that they began to spread through the islands from the north. They say from Doong, which is Ephinstone—a large island in the north-west of the Mergui Archipelago. Further, they say that they were forcibly spread by the Malays, who used to carry them off and enslave them. Dr. Anderson informs us that in an account of the Mawken, published in 1828, by Walter Hamilton, the fact that the 'Chalomes' (Sclones) were made slaves by the Malays is mentioned. And, in his own book, Dr. Anderson alludes to the fear of slavery by Sclungs whom he met at the Yimiki Settlements. This was in 1881-82. We have abundant records of Malay piracy in the past. And I have personal knowledge of the fact that acts of piracy are still committed: for I take it that if a Malay local holds up a Mawken boat and robs it of its provisions (rice) and of mats and things which the Mawken have made for sale, such action constitutes 'Piracy'. Major Broadfoot, a former Deputy Commissioner in Mergui, in the forties of the last century, was cognisant of such acts of piracy against the Mawken. Such occurrences are common throughout the Archipelago teday it one may take the complaints of Mawken from Mergui to Victoria Point, as true; and if one may judge by that which one has witnessed for oneself.

Owing to the Malay captures and removals, the Mawken were located and found new centres about Bokpyin, Victoria Point, Lawta and Tongka. This is the Mawken account of

the part, obtained directly from them."

Chinaman. The Chinese of Yunnan are not therefore necessarily less pure Chinamen than their compatriots of other provinces, the difference being only that their absorption into the Chinese race has taken place at a later date than that of the inhabitants of most other parts of the empire."

Many of the localised Chinese on the north-eastern frontier are assimilated members of the Lolo group of tribes, or even Shans or Was, or members of the Miao or Yao tribes. But if the exact ethnical status of the Chinese on their arrival in the country is indeterminate, it becomes chaotic after a short lapse of time. The Chinese immigrants are preponderately male, and the Chinaman is in high repute with the women of all the races in the province as a husband. Even the endogamous Karens are known to succumb to the possibility of obtaining a family alliance with a Chinaman; and among other races, he is a markedly favoured suitor. Consequently, the Chinese born in the country show an even greater variation in race than the immigrants. The ethnical confusion is completed by the practice of the sons of all mixed unions of Chinese with the women of the province being brought up as Chinamen, while the daughters adopt the race of the mother. Under such circumstances, racial classification becomes purely empirical. The confusion extends beyond purely ethnical considerations. It affects the proportions of the sexes so far as they can be treated from a racial point of view, and introduces numerous anomalies and complexities in other directions.

The increase in the Chinese community to almost double their previous numbers in the past ten years is the resultant of many factors. Of the total

increase of 60,348, the newly included areas of Kokang and West Manglun contribute 18,791. The extension of racial classification to the Kachin Districts of North Hsenwi and the areas previously estimated in the Myitkyina District also accounts for a large number. The disproportion between the sexes of this race in Burma proper is greater even than is indicated by the figures for the province as a whole. The

* ***		Males.	Fémales
Kokang West Manglun	111	9,385	8,412 481
Total	.,,	9,868	8,923

Chinese in Kokang and West Manglun being practically indigenous, show approximately equal proportions. If these be deducted from the whole the ratio of males to females is appreciably increased. The large increase in the Chinese population of the country is not regarded with such jealousy as the increase in the numbers of Indians. There is a general opinion that the Chinese admixture improves the indigenous racial stock, whereas the contrary opinion is strongly held with regard to the admixture of the Indian and Burmese races. It is also possible that the numbers of the Chinese are not of sufficient magnitude to give any cause for jealousy.

#### BIRTH-MARKS AND MELANOGLOSSIA AS RACIAL TESTS.

325. Birth-marks as a Test of Race.—In connection with the census an attempt was made to follow up a suggestion made by Herr Bealz that certain birthmarks may be an important criterion for distinguishing members of the Mongolian race. The phenomena and the problem may be stated in a translation of his own words:—

"I now come to a test which is one of the most interesting in the whole of Anthropology, vis., the blue patches on the skin of Mongolian children. Until I described them eighteen years ago, these patches, strange to say, had never been considered; and even now they appear to be unknown to most anthropologists. Every Chinese, every Korean, Japanese and Malay is born with a dark blue patch of irregular shape in the lower sacral region. Sometimes it is equally divided on both sides and sometimes not. Sometimes it is only the size of a shilling, and at other times nearly as large as the hand. In addition there are also more or less numerous similar patches on the trunk and limbs, but never on the face. Sometimes they are so numerous as to cover nearly half the surface of the body. Their appearance is as if the child had been bruised by a fall. These patches generally disappear in the first year of life, but sometimes they last for several years. If it be the case, as I believe, that such patches are found exclusively amongst persons of Mongolian race, they furnish a most important criterion for distinguishing between this and other races. The Ainos have not got these patches, save in isolated cases where traces of them possibly indicate an admixture of Mongolian blood. Children of mixed Japanese and European parentage who take after the European parent have not got these spots; those who share the peculiarities of both parents have traces of them, and those who take entirely after the Japanese parent show them very distinctly."

The enquiries made in this connection were not official, but an endeavour was made to interest civil surgeons, missionaries, nurses and others who were in a position to obtain special information on the subject in the investigation. The results varied greatly both in reliability and in the possibility of reduction to statistical form. One civil surgeon gravely examined all the prisoners in the jail under his charge in order to search for a symptom which generally disappears in the first year of life. Another informed his Deputy Commissioner that the phenomenon was unknown and

Statement showing	preva	ence of certai of parious rac	n birth marks	among children
		Number of	Children.	
Race.		Examined.	Found with birth marks.	Percentage.
Burmese	•••	1,713	1,122	65
Arakanese	•••	9	7	78
Karen	•••	168	102	61
Taungthu	•••	2	I	50
Talaing	• • •	117	90	77
Shan	•••	118	26	22
Kachin	•••	113	18	16
Chin	•••	484	289	бo
Palaung	•••	700	70	10
Chinese	•••	68	17	. 25
Hindu	•••	114	25	22
Mahomedan	•••	82	20	24

that the existence of such birthmarks on Mongolian children was probably a delusion. confronted with the results obtained in a few other districts, his successor found that the marks referred to were present in all infants with very few exceptions, that even in the few exceptions found there were marks of a sort, but slight and indefinite, and that the people themselves recognise the mark to be almost, though not quite, universal among their infants. Other investigators failed to take any record of the race of the

children examined, or of the children on whom such marks were found. Consequently the results obtained are difficult to arrange statistically, and many of them are of but doubtful value. Subsidiary Table II of this chapter gives the results as far as it has been possible to reduce them to statistics and a marginal statement gives a racial summary of the figures. But these represent but a small proportion of the total cases examined and of the total information received. It is possible that a truer conception of the prevalence of these distinguishing birth-marks can be obtained from those reports which have not been in a form to present satistically, than from those incorporated in the tabular statements.

326. Prevalence of Distinguishing Birth-marks in the Shan States.— Among the reports of great interest, but which do not discriminate between the various races examined, and which are not capable of statistical treatment, are those received from the Shan States. They represent enquiries made among the numerous racial groups which are found within their limits. Extracts are given from the reports received from the following officers:—

The Assistant Superintendent, Central Subdivision, Southern Shan States:—
"Enquiries among the Shans, Taungthus, Danus, Inthas, Red Karens, Padaungs, Zareins, Yinbaws, Taungyos and Li-saws go to show that from 80 to 90 per cent. of their children, over 3,500 were examined in the charge, are born with blue patches on one or both buttocks and other parts of the body. They are generally of an oval or irregular shape and of the size of cotton, tamarind, and Indian corn seed, two, four and eight anna pieces, one to five inches length and three to four fingers' and the palm of the hand's breadth. They disappear within a period of three months to five years."

The Assistant Superintendent, Kengtung Subdivision, Southern Shan States:—
"Undersigned regrets he is only in a position to give general information on the subject which is in effect that amongst the Shan population the prevalence of the phenomena is very frequent; in some localities roughly one-third of the children are born with blue patches. In some cases the marks occur on both sides of the legs—the marks are most frequently round, the largest met with being three inches in diameter, but the majority being about one inch by two inches."

The Assistant Superintendent, Western Subdivision, Southern Shan States:—
"I have been unable to collect detailed or statistical information. I have, however, made frequent enquiries among Taungyos, Taungthus, Danus and Shans, and in each case have been told by the mothers that small birth-marks invariably occur on one or both buttocks, and disappear gradually in the first one to four months of life. In Zerbadi children, some are born with the marks and others not. The colour of the marks is described as a dull reddish."

The Assistant Superintendent, South-Eastern Subdivision, Southern Shan

"From enquiries I have had made from midwives fully 80 per cent. of Shan, Taungthu and Yang children when born have the characteristic blue mark varying in size from a pice to a hand's breadth. In the case of the larger marks the marking is said to be a series of spots rather than a continuous patch. The marks are said to disappear rapidly after birth within a period of a few days to a month."

The Assistant Superintendent, North-Eastern Subdivision, Southern Shan

"Enquiries amongst a number of Shan midwives elicited the information given below:-

1. Size.—A rupee to the palm of the hand, shape irregular, colour blue.

Date of disappearance—between four and five years.
 Degree of prevalence—70 per cent."

327. Other Reports on birth-marks not strictly classified by Race.-Reports from the civil surgeons of two of the regular districts of the province are neither separable into the various races mentioned nor presentable in statistical They are as follows:-

"I have examined a large number of children amongst the several classes, viz., Burmese, Shans, and Chinese, and I find that with very few exceptions the mark referred to is present in infants. Even in the few exceptions that I examined one might say that there were marks of a sort but they were so slight and indefinite that I preferred to class them as The people themselves recognise the mark to be almost though not quite universal

amongst their infants.

"I have formed a committee consisting of a member of each nationality who could assiste me, vis., Talaing, Taungthu, Burman and Mahomedan and two midwives who have an extensive practice plus my Sub-Assistant Surgeon and my Diplomed Midwife of the Dufferin Hospital. Regarding 'blue patches'. We all have unanimous experience and opinion that in almost so per cent of births in all nationality have shown its presence and usually disin almost 90 per cent. of births in all nationality have shown its presence and usually disappear gradually in three years or so. This is invariably reported throughout my enquiry both in the town and in the District in the course of my touring, and yet I am sorry I could not supply you with statistics but suggest to take 90 per cent. of births having 'Blue patches' as said above. Other permanent dark marks varying from a small pea to a half a rupee size shading in colour from deep dark to a light streaks of blue is said to be in (some say) ten to twenty-five per cent., but they are said to have a history of prognostication of its own, and the Talaing, Taungthu and the Burmese are great believers in it.

"Such mark if found on foot they read as one who will be a traveller.

"If on buttock—as one who will pass his age without difficulty.

"If on abdomen or throat—as one who will be a lazy and heavy eater.

"If on shoulder will be a cooly.

"If on back will be a labourer working in the sun."

Another report from a Township Officer reads:-

"From enquiries and from my own personal knowledge every Burmese as well as Karen child has 'birth marks' on it, viz., blue patches of varying sizes in different children on their birth. These however disappear when the child is about twelve months age-sometimes sooner, sometimes later. These patches are seen on the buttocks only."

328. Birth-marks among the Burmese.—Five of the reports received; some accompanied by tabular statements, and some merely couched in general terms are worthy of quotation as indicating the general prevalence of these characteristics among the Burmese. The first three are from Civil Surgeons, the fourth from a Deputy Commissioner who took a great personal interest in the question and the last gives details of the family of a well-known and highly placed Burmese

"My observations have been solely amongst Burmans. For years the blue patches prescribed by Herr Bealz have been noticed by me without exception. In children born from parents where one is of European or Asiatic blood the marks are sometimes faintly present. I have not found them in the children of natives of India. I have examined about 50 cases and in every case where the parents were Burmese the marks (blue patches) were visible. In those that had natives of India as one of the parents the marks were occasionally visible. In others it was absent.

"As regards the second question the prevalence of blue or pink patches on the skin of new born Burmese children (in Burma those are known as birth-marks) are well-known to almost every family. I may safely confine my remarks to the Arakan Division, especially Akyab, where I spent the best portion of my service. Almost every child born there has some kind of mark, mostly blue, occasionally darkish brown or pinkish patch on the skin.

"From the attached table you will see the result of observations made in this town. Out

of 191 Burmese children no less than 181 were born with patches as described by Herr of 191 Burmese children no less than 191 were born with putches. Bealz. The dark-blue patch usually occurs in the lower sacral region, but I have seen patches on other parts of the body. There is an adult in the jail here, age 31 years, who has a dark blue patch (Burmese Amhat or Sa) on the back of his left shoulder joint. This case illus-

blue patch (Burmese Amhat or Sa) on the back of his left shoulder joint. This case illustrates the occasional persistence of the 'birth mark'.

"I examined 32 children, most of them under two years of age. Of these 23 had the patch, and four were said to have had it when younger. The remaining five were said never to have had it, but only one was an infant. They were said to be pure Burmans. All the patches were about the place mentioned, but in one case the pigment extended all over the buttocks, as if the child had sat on wet paint. Another child was said to have been born with a patch between the shoulders besides the one in the usual place. The age at which the patch disappeared was given variously from a year to four or five, and sometimes ten years. "I am the father of nine children. Seven of them have such marks, the eldest one now 23 years old has still a circular blue patch the size of eight anna bit on his right thigh. One girl, aged eight, has still a reddish brown patch on the nape of neck merging into hairy scalp. One boy at 12 has a pink patch on the right breast, an irregular patch three quarters of an inch by half an inch. Other three children had dark brown and blue patches on buttocks and thighs, but this disappeared a few years after birth. One of my daughters now aged two and a half years was born almost dark brown. Month after month this coloration gave way and she can now be pronounced as fair, except her buttocks which still retain darkish brown color, but not so dark as when she first saw light."

329. Birth-marks among the Karens.—Reference has already been made in previous quotations, relating jointly to several races, to the prevalence of these special birth-marks among the Taungthus, Red Karens, Padaungs and Zayeins, all of them Karen tribes, as well as among the Karens themselves. Other reports giving special consideration to the Karens are as follows:—

A Roman Catholic missionary writes:-

"With reference to our conversation and after more enquiries I am glad to state that the blue black spots remarked on the children of Korea, Japan and Manchuria, can be seen amongst the Karen of this country. For my part after nine years spent amongst them, I cannot remember a single exception to that rule out of over a thousand babies from both sex. Those spots are generally very large without well delimitated shape. Often amongst the Sagu Karen, fairer than the Po Karen, it appears on a light blue-black to disappear gradually during the first year. The body which is too quite covered with hair at the birth time became clean at the same time with the disappearance of those spots."

A Sub-Assistant Surgeon writes:-

"Judging from the information gathered from Karennis, the appearance of birth marks is very prevalent among Karenni children. The mark which is a blue patch generally appears at the buttocks."

An American Baptist Missionary writes:

"After seeing you at the hospital yesterday I had a conservation with a Karen young man who told me that it was usual for Karen babies to have a dark spot on the buttock. He said he thought perhaps one in twenty might be without it, and recalled to my mind the fact that a Karen baby to whom I recently gave a quinine injection, had it. That child was six months old, and the mark was quite distinct, but the young man said it usually disappears at about the third or fourth month or at about the time when the child fills out and looses the skinny, flabby appearance which it bears at birth. He said, too, that the Karens have a saying that if a child is born without this mark, it shows that the mother will have no more children, the strain is finished. An enquiry into this matter might be of interest. The last egg laid by a hen before sitting is likely, I think, to be imperfect. The blue mark may be a sign of sexual vigour on the part of the mother, and the failure of this power may be accompanied with the disappearance of the sign. That would make the proportion given by the young man, one to twenty, not far from right, I should think, including cases in which the mother does not live to reach the age of sexual subsidence."

A Professor from the Rangoon Baptist College after a careful examination of the children of six Karen families makes the following comments:—

"I incline to think that the percentage of those born with birth-marks will be greater than appears from these figures (16 out of 23). The marks vary greatly in size, and unobservant parents might overlook the presence of small marks. Certain Karens in whose intelligence I place much confidence tell me that nearly all Karen children are born with the marks in question."

330. Birth-marks among the Talaings.—The Talaings have already been mentioned in this respect in a joint report giving conclusions derived from the examination of several races. The following reports from the Amherst District concern Talaing children only:—

"From personal knowledge and from enquiries I find that all the children among the Talaing have more or less the blue birth-marks lasting from 1 to 5 years.

"I have examined 117 cases at Kado and found blue patches on the buttocks and on the backs of 90 children. They are all Talaings."

Concerning the Talaings of another district, the Civil Surgeon writes :-

I am informed that the patches are very common amongst Talaings in this district. I personally know of a baby, born of European father and Talaing mother, who had a blue rately an the sairal region. The mark disappeared within the first year."

331. Birth-marks among the Chins and Kachins.—As regards the prevalence of the blue patches in the lower sacral region among the Chins, 484 Chin children under one year of age were examined with the result that 289 showed bise plymented patches of varying sizes. From Bhamo, an examination

of 17 Kachin children revealed 7 such marks on the buttocks, but it is stated that the occurrence of dark patches on the skins of new born babies especially on the buttocks is said to be common among the Kachins and kindred tribes. Particulars of the seven children so marked are as follows:-

I. Child, three years of age, had at birth a patch as large as two hands on the buttocks half way up the spine. The patch is now disappearing and is

irregular in shape.

II. Three other children, aged one and-a-half years, had each three circular shaped spots about the size of a rupee and a patch about the size of a hand on the

buttocks. All are gradually disappearing.

III. Two children, about one year old, had 8 and 7 bluish spots on spine and buttocks, respectively. The spots were between the size of a four-anna bit and a rupee, and were very irregular in shape.

IV. One two-year old child had a spot about the size of a four-anna piece

which still shows no signs of disappearing.

332. General Conclusions as regards Birth-marks.—General reports, the majority of them unaccompanied by any figures have been quoted rather extensively, partly in order to supplement the statistics obtained and partly because they are more reliable than any figures at present obtainable. It is obvious that for a really scientific examination, worthy of presentation in statistical form, the observation should be taken at birth. The marks vary so much in intensity and colour, and disappear so gradually, that it is highly probable that many marks which may have existed may be absent in children of twelve months, six months or even of three months of age. There has been no opportunity for any such scientific examination in the time at disposal, and the means for effecting such an examination have been so limited that it has been impossible to carry it into effect. An examination has been made of a large number of children ranging in age from the day of birth to two and three years. Naturally with each extra month of age the probability of finding the marks grows less and less, and the percentage of marks found must be lowered considerably by the examination of children who originally possessed them, but from whom they had disappeared in course of time. The existence of such marks individually, and their disappearance, would not be so naturally remembered as the general prevalence of the marks among newly born children. The most reliable facts are the general recollections and observance of parents and midwives which could not be reduced to tabular form. The reports indicate that among the indigenous races of the Province (Burmese, Karens, Taungthus, Chins, Kachins, Shans, Talaings, Danus, Inthas, Taungyos) and their sub-tribes, the existence of a coloured patch of irregular shape in the lower sacral region is almost. The colour is generally dark blue, but variations in colour if not quite, universal. from dark brown and dull reddish to pink have been observed. The position is generally on the buttocks, but the patches are frequently found in the spinal region, and occasionally at the upper portions of the back. Their shape and size are as varied as their colour. One case is mentioned as being similar to the effect produced by the child sitting on wet paint. Other cases occurred in which the patches were as large as two hands, and they vary from this size down to the size of a four-anna bit or a small pea. There is no uniformity to be found as to their The most frequent shape takes the form of an irregular patch extending on both sides of the sacral region sometimes joined together and sometimes separated into two portions. Occasionally they break up into several small patches as many as seven or eight being mentioned in some cases. The age of disappearance varies with the intensity of the colouring. The patches of faintly marked colour disappear in a few months. The majority have disappeared at about the end of 12 months. They then gradually grow fainter, but persist in some instances till the child is 3, 4 or 5 years of age. A few instances of persistence until adult age is reached have been noticed. It is difficult to assign a percentage to a phenomenon so generally known, and yet so inadequately observed and recorded. The absence of the marks is the exception rather than the rule. Between 80 and 90 per cent. would represent the number of babies born with the marks. If anything this percentage is an under-statement. One Civil Surgeon states that even in the few exceptions examined there were marks of a sort but that they were so slight and indefinite that he preferred to class them as being without them. It is possible and even probable that the percentage would be increased, if rudimentary markings such as would be likely to escape the notice of the average parent or midwife were to be included.

As to the anthropological or enthnological conclusions to be derived from the existence of these marks I can offer no opinion. The observations taken on the children of non-indigenous races were so few and the caste or race of the parents of such children were so doubtful, that they afford no means of comparison. not till the results obtained from the examination of or rather the enquiry into, the prevalence of this phenomenon among the races of Burma are compared with those obtained in other provinces that any definite conclusions can be formulated.

333. Melanoglossia.—The genesis of the enquiries into the prevalence of the phenomenon of Melanoglossia is a note by Surgeon Captain Maynard, I.M.S., from the Indian Medical Gazette of October 1897. The salient points of his note are indicated in the following extracts:-

"When examining coolies for emigration from Lohardaga to Assam during the last cold season, the number of pigmented tongues met with was rather striking, and some observations were made on their frequency, etc. These observations are principally of anthropological interest. Their pathological significance is nil, and this probably accounts for the slight attention paid to them in our text-books. Hilton Fagge, after briefly describing maculæ, ephelides and lentigo, mentions that "precisely similar minute dark spots appear in covered parts of the skin, and in mucous membranes sometimes along with the melasma of Addison's disease or from pigmentation from malaria and sometimes in conditions of health Addison's disease or from pigmentation from malaria and sometimes in conditions of health. Others are congenital and may then be described as pigmentary naevi or mother's marks." The coolies were examined consecutively and taken haphazard, not selected.

"In all 347 tongues were noted, and pigmentation was found in 111 or 32 per cent.; 203 were males, and in them 69 tongues or 33 per cent. were pigmented; 144 females were examined, and 44 pigmented tongues or 30.5 per cent. found.

"The other castes include a considerable number of castes of Aryan origin, and the

relative infrequency of pigmented tongues among them (199 per cent.) compared with their frequency among the Dravidian tribes (average 44'8 per cent.) confirms the general impression I had formed that the pigmentation of the tongue varies with the pigmentation of the skin. For the Kolarian tribes (Mundas, Oraons, Kharias, etc.) have, as a rule, the blackest skins possible, and the depth of skin pigment was generally observed to correspond directly with a depth of the tongue pigment. The distribution and extent of the discoloration varied greatly. In some cases the fungiform papillae were each surrounded by a blue or brown rim, giving the tongue a curious speckled look; in others there were irregular blue or black blotches, simple or multiple, and varying in size from a two-anna bit to a rupee on the dorsum or along the edges of the tongue. In one only was the whole tongue black. In no case were the gums or roof of the mouth pigmented. The marks were found at all ages,

though more commonly more widely spread and of deeper hue in adults than in children.

"Thus Melanoglossia, as far as these 347 cases go, would appear to be largely a question of race, and to be more common the lower the race is in the scale of civilization. It is almost equally common in the two sexes. It would appear to be hereditary, though not necessarily appearing in early childhood. No connection with any diseased condition was

to be made out."

Great difficulty was encountered in conducting the examination as the practice of chewing betel so common in Burma has led to an artificial discoloration of the

Melanogloss	ia among the	races of Burn	¥3.
	Number o	of persons,	
Race.	Examined.	Found with Melano- glowin	Percentage.
Burmee	5,506	217	4
Arakanese	333	•••	***
Karen	353	77	33
Shan	299	23	8
Kachin	152	2	1
Chia	35	••	***
Chinese	536	13	3
Talaing	; 9 <b>3</b>	43	41
Mangari	· 9	4	44
(bodiazograp) nadant	1.164	105	9

tongue which must be rectified before any natural discoloration can be investigated. The most can be investigated. valuable and reliable observations were therefore those made in jails and hospitals where an enforced abstinence from betel chewing rendered the examination The results tabulated in feasible. Subsidiary Table III are condensed for the various races in a The permarginal statement. centage of Melanoglossia found is much less than that observed by Captain Maynard among the castes he examined. This appears to be due to the principle that the

pigmentation of the tongue varies with the pigmentation of the skin; the depth of the tengue pigment varying with the depth of the skin pigment. The races of Burma are much fairer generally than the castes of India, and there is consequently a much lighter percentage of Melanoglossia. Except in this secondary manner, that Melanghash being less marked among the fairer races is consequently an indication of race, it is doubtful if the results obtained will be of any value in the The state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the s

SUBSIDIARY TABLE I.—Variation in Principal Tribes, Races and Groups since 1871.

Tribe, Race,			Persons.	<u> </u>		Percentage of variation. Increase (+) Decrease (—).			
or Group.	1911.	1901.	1891.	1881.	1872.	1901—	1891— 1901.	1881— 1891.	1872— 1881.
ı	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Chin Tribes	306,486	215,158	113,980	68,788	70,086 	+42	+89	+66	-2
Kachin	162,368	64,405	2,090	•••	•••	+152	•••		<b></b>
Kachin Burma Hybrids.	10,167	1,255	1,393	***	• •••	+710	- 10	•••	
Lolo Group	67,418	47,609	II.	***	.* •••	+42	•••	•••	•••
Burma Group	7,986,327	7,097,248	5,769,278	2,623,294	1,938,194	+15	+23	+120	+35
Burmese	7,479,433	6,508,682	5,405,851	2,623,294	1,938,194	+13	+20	+106	+35
- Arakanese	344,123	405,143	354,900	•••	•••	-104	+14	<b></b>	
Intha	52,685	50,478	•••	•••	•••	+4			••• •
Danu	<b>7</b> 0,947	63,549	547	•••		+12		•••	- •••
Taungyo	19,656	16,749	•••	***	•••	+17	•••	•••	•••
Sinitic Group (Karen).	1,102,695	903,361	540,927	616,838	356,229	+22	+67	-12	+73
Taungthu	183,054	168,301	4,690	35,554	24,923	+9			+43
Karenni	19,008	4,936	1,749	•••	•••	+285	+182	•••	****
Tai Group	996,420	863,672	178,582	59,723	36,029	+15	+ 384	+199	+65
Shan	926,879	787,087	178,321.	59,723	36,029	+17	+341	+199	+65
Khūn	42,366	41,470	•••		•••	+ 2	•••		
Lu	17,331	16,227	***	•••	•••	+7		•••	•••
Mon-Khmer	493,123	39,0,484	471,011	I54,553	181,602	+26	-17	÷205	-14
Talaing	320,629	321,898	467,88 <sub>5</sub>	154,553	181,602	•••	—31 	÷203	-14
Palaung	144,139	56,866	3,126	***	•••	÷153			***
Wa	14,674	9,412		***		÷55			
Chinese	122,834	62,486	41,751	12,962	12,209	÷97	+49	+222	<del>4</del> 7

# SUBSIDIARY TABLE II.—Birth-marks by District and Race.

Name of District.				Race.	•	-	Number of persons examined.	Number in which blue patches found.
Sandoway				Arakanese	•••		9.	7
City of Rango	on			Burmese Karen	•••		10	3 16
·				Mahomedans	•••	:::	23 1	I
Myaungmya	•••	•••	•••	Burmese			rgt	181
Toungoo				Burmese Karen	· · ·		9t 100	66 80
Ámherst	•••	•••		Burmese			1	
	***	***		Karen	•••		1	<sub>r</sub>
				Taungthu Talaing	•••	•••	117	90
Tavoy		•••		Burmese			42	ī
	•••	***	1	Karen	***	•••	. <b>8</b>	<b></b>
			- {	Hindu Mahomedan	•••	:::	3	***
				Chinese	•••		2	•••
. m			1	Burmese			101	72
Thayetmyo	•••	•••	••• [	Hindu	•••		21	72 5 2
				Mahomedan	•••		6	2
Mandal ay Ci	ty	·		Indian	•••		I	•••
Bhamo		•••	رر.	Burmese	.;,		40 28	
				Hindu Mahomedan	•••	:"	28	
			1	Chinese	••	(	28	,
				Kachin Indian	•••		26 I	7
				Burmese			21	5 • 6
Myitkyina	***	•••		Hindu	•••		27	• 6
			ļ	Mahomedan	•••		3 13	2
			1	Chinese Shan	•••		4	2
				Kachin	•••		Ĭ	I
Katha		•••		Burmese			II I	9.
}			j	Chinese European	•••		ī	•••
				Indian	•••		4	I
Ruby Mines	•••			Chinese	•••		6	
Kuby Miles		-•		Shan Kachin	•••	•••	. 69 86	10
				Palaung	•••	:::	700	70
Upper Chind	lwin	•••		Burmese			116	53 <sub>8</sub>
Opper Chine		•••	• • •	Hindu Mahomedan	•••		33 29	53 8 5 3
				Chinese	•••	***	3 -	3
		*		Shan	•••	•••	2	
Kyauksè	•••	,,,	,	Burmese	•••	•••	50	
16.2			•••	Burmese	•••		1,039	732
Myingyan	•••	•••	•••	Hindu	***		4	4
				Mahomedan Chinese	•••	•••	13 15	11
Southern Sh	an Chr	oc.		Karen	***		36	
Southern Sh	ian stai	.cs	•••	Shan	•••	•••	43	13
Chin Hills	••	•••	•••	Chin	•••		484	289

# SUBSIDIARY TABLE III.—Melanoglossia by District and Race.

Name of District.				Race.			Number of persons examined.	Number in which Melanoglossia found.	
		<u> </u>		_	-		-		
Akyab	•••	•••	•••	Burmese Indian Hindu Mahomedan	•••		100 3 2		
				Chinese Chin Arakanese	•••		75 6 20 3 <sup>1</sup> 7		
City of Rangoo	n	`		Burmese Indian Chinese			1,658 341 111	6	
Hanthawaddy	•••	•••		Burmese Hindu Mahomedan			1,500 23 25	25 	
		•		Chinese	•••		23 I	···	
Tharrawaddy		•••		Indian Mahomedan	•••	•••		r	
Pegu Ma-ubin	•••	•••	***	Burmese	•••	***	 160		
ma-uom	•••	•••	•••	Karen	•••	•••	23		
				Indian Chinese			8 6	•••	
Toungoo	,	•••		Burmese			•••	τ	
Amherst	•••	•••		Burmese	•••		231	122	
`				Karen Indian	•••		138 91	76 59	
				Chinese	•••		15	11	
				Shans Talaing	•••		2 <u>1</u> 98	15 43	
Tavoy			•••	Burmese	•••		392	•••	
- ( - )				Karen Hindu	•••	•••	97 64		
				Mahomedan	•••	:::	40		
				Chinese Shan	•••		112 . I	•••	
Thayetmyo				Indian	•••		58	3	
Bhamo	•••			Burmese			118	ı	
				Indian Hindu	•••		3 59	ı	
				Mahomedan Chinese Shans	 		53 100 11		
				Kachin	•••		64		
Myitkyina		•••	•••	Burmese Hindu	•••	•••	108 6†	3 2	
				Mahomedan	•••		84	4	
				Chinese Shans	•••	***	126 2	2	
•				Kachin	•••		74	I	
Katha	•••	•••	•••	Burmese Indian			39 10	r	
•				Chinese	•••		21	r	
				Shans Kachin	•••		33 14	r	
Upper Chind	vin	•••	•••	Burmese			168	47	
				Indian Hindu	•••	•••	14 26	6	
	_			Mahomedan	•••		II I	4	
				Chinese Shans	•••		20	6	
				Assamese Manipuri	•••	:::	2 7	3	
				Anglo-Indian			4	•••	
Myingyan	•••	***	•••	Burmese Karen	•••		1,035 22	II I	
				Hindu	•••	:::	20	2	
				Mahomedan Chinese	•••		11 15		
				Shans	•••		122 15	1	
				Chin Arakanese	••••	•••	16		
Southern Sha	an Sta	ates	•••	1 TP .	•••		41 -2	•••	
,	*			Karen	•••	•••	73 34	3	
1				Shans	•••		89	"	

#### CHAPTER XII.

### Occupations.

## SCHEME OF CLASSIFICATION.

334. Classification of Occupations.—A revolutionary change has been affected in the classification of occupations as compared with that adopted at the two previous enumerations of 1891 and 1901. In 1891 Mr. Baines, now Sir J. Athelstone Baines, C.S.I., devised a system based entirely on Indian conditions and requirements. Its object was to group the entries in the census schedules as far as possible in accordance with the distribution of occupations in India in general, and at the same time to allow room for the designations of special features found only in certain provinces. It specially disclaimed any association with the classification in use at the census of communities further advanced in economic differentiation, or with a classification based on the abstract laws of sociological science. This method followed in 1891 and 1901 has now been superseded by a system based on a report of the eminent French Statistician, M. Bertillon, made at the Paris Session of the International Institute of Statistics in 1889, and subsequently revised at the Vienna Session in 1893. The essence of this system is the recognition of the two features specially disclaimed by Mr. Baines. It is founded on the increasing importance of the classification of employment as a branch of sociological science, and on the necessity of co-ordinating the main heads of classification of all countries and communities, whatever may be their differences in detail. The following extracts from a translation of M. Bertillon's report indicate its fundamental principles :-

"The chief aim in drawing up this plan has been to secure uniformity in the statistics of occupations. At present the necessity of uniformity in statistics of labour is strongly insisted upon. The study of the organization of labour is assuming a steadily advancing position in government inquiry. As progress is made in this study the stronger becomes the conviction that in order to obtain practical results a certain international agreement is indispensable. How can this agreement be hoped for if the elements of statistics, which form the basis of it, are not comparable? The work which we are undertaking, therefore, does not aim simply at satisfying the curiosity of the learned; it has a more important bearing, and may help to solve most serious problems, which may be presented in a few years to all Governments. If it were proposed to adopt a single classification, some countries would not co-operate, thinking it too complex, while others would consider it too short. This difficulty is avoided by proposing three classifications, which blend together in some measure, since each is developed by the subdivision of the preceding. The first of the classifications is very condensed, numbering only or headings. The second reproduces certain of these general headings, and develops these still further, and contains 400 categories. But there is no reason for limiting ear choice to these three classifications. The uniformity of statistics of occupations will in no way be altered if, for example, a country should adopt the second classification, and substitute for some of its headings the corresponding ones of the first or third classification, it is important, however, that the general frame-work should always be that of the first classification, the most condensed of the three, and that the occupations should be arranged according to the third classification, the most detailed of the three."

335. Comparison of Past and Present Schemes.—It

336. Reasons for Adoption of New Scheme,—There are so many objections to any change in a system of classification once adopted, that the new scheme was not adopted without much hesitation and discussion. The greatest value of all statistics lies in their dynamical rather than their statical utility. is the comparison of statistics with those of corresponding facts for other dates, and the light that is thereby thrown on social life and customs for the intervening period, that gives them their highest value; and anything which tends to render such comparisons impossible or obscure, is to be deprecated. But the possibility of comparison, valuable as it is, may have to give place to other considerations. Such was the case with the classification of employments as adopted in 1891 and 1901. It was generally admitted that the 520 groups, into which this scheme of classification ultimately resolved itself, was far too elaborate for census work in India. It involved an excessive amount of labour in compilation, and introduced such complexities of tabulation that the results were of less value than would be obtained from a simpler scheme. Moreover there were several minor defects in the previous classification. For instance, traders dealing in specified articles were included in Class D,—Preparation and supply of material substances, while traders unspecified were entered in Class E,—Commerce, transport and storage. Again, miners of specified minerals were included under Class D, whereas miners of unspecified substances were entered in Class It is impossible to devise a scheme of occupational classification free from some anomalies of this nature, but those just instanced were capable of rectifica-tion. Some modification was therefore imperative and the only questions for decision were as to the nature and degree of modification. Should it be a simplification by amalgamation and reduction of the detailed heads of the previous system, leaving the previous main heads of classification unaffected; or seeing that change was necessary, should the change be so comprehensive as to bring the statistics of Indian employment into line with the results of the most advanced statistical and sociological science? The following extracts show the trend of European and American authority on these questions. M. Joseph Karosi, Director of the Communal Bureaux of Statistics at Buda Pest, who is willing to sacrifice his lown scheme on the altar of uniformity, writes as follows:-

"If one recognises the great importance of presenting the statistics of occupation in an uniform, comparable form, one will regard as a lesser evil the abandonment in part of one's own hitherto-followed scheme. For my own part, I do not hesitate to declare that, however much I may dislike the loss which a change in my scheme would entail in the matter of comparing future results with those of the preceding decennial enumerations, I will willingly adopt the scheme agreed on by the majority of the Institute in order to ensure comparability for all future censuses in all countries."

Dr. David R. Dewey in an article on census classification of occupations in the United States concludes thus:—

"It is highly desirable that some general scheme—should be adopted similar to that proposed by M. Bertillon which is flexible in adaptability to compression—or elaboration as the wants of different states may demand, but at the same time sufficiently rigid to admit to the drawing of comparisons, not only between different states, but also from one census of another."

Mr. E. A. Gait, C.I.E., Census Commissioner for India, records his decision to effect the change in the following terms:—

"The great majority of Provincial Superintendents are strongly in favour of the adoption at the coming census of a new scheme of classification, based on that of Monsieur Bertillon and I agree with them. Monsieur Bertillon's scheme was worked out, with a view to rendering possible the comparison of the occupation statistics of different countries, after a careful study of the various schemes in actual use; and it was revised in consultation with a number of the leading European statisticians. It has received the approval of the International Statistical Institute, who have recommended it for general adoption. If the scheme used at the last two Indian censuses has been in every way suited to our requirements, there might have been good reasons for hesitating to make a change. This, however, is not the case. It was shown in the last India Census Report that that scheme was far too elaborate. It was moreover defective in certain respects, as mentioned in paragraph 3 of my note referred to above. Some revision would, therefore, in any case have to be made; and, this being so, it is undoubtedly desirable to take the opportunity to adopt a system of classification which has received the approval of the leading authorities on the subject, and which has already been adopted in some countries, and is likely in time to be adopted in others also. The chief objection to a change of elassification is that it may interfere with the comparability of the statistics of the present census with those compiled in 1901. But it will be seen from paragraph 7 below that in most cases it will be quite easy to re-arrange the groups of the last census under the heads in the new scheme. There has been no change in the nomenclature adopted for the groups under which the

occupations of the great majority of the population will be tabulated and the discrepancies arising out of the re-arrangement will in any case be less serious than those due to various errors of classification which occurred at the last census."

337. Detailed Description of M. Bertillon's Scheme as applied to India.—It has been seen that the main divisions of employments in M. Bertillon's scheme comprises four main classes and twelve sub-classes. These are further classified into three series of minor subdivisions consisting of 61 orders, 206 sub-orders and 499 groups. But the essence of the scheme is that, whereas the main divisions are obligatory on account of the necessity of comparison with other communities, the minor subdivisions are optional and can be modified to suit local or national requirements. For the census of 1911 Mr. Gait has adopted the four classes and the 12 sub-classes of M. Bertillon as they stand. The 61 orders have been reduced to 55 by the omission of 5 orders deemed unnecessary for Indian conditions, and by the amalgamation of two others (maritime and fresh water transport) into one order designated "Transport by water". The adoption of sub-orders has been unnecessary except in the case of Crder I, Pasture and Agriculture, which has five sub-orders as follows:—

(a) ordinary cultivation;

(b) growers of special products and market gardening;

(c) forestry;

(d) raising of farm stock;(e) raising of small animals.

Instead of the 499 groups of M. Bertillon's system, the occupations of India have been found to fit in with a division of 169 groups only. Thus, of the five series of divisions under M. Bertillon's scheme, viz., classes, sub-classes, orders, sub-orders and groups, the first two have been adopted unchanged, the third has been adopted with a slight reduction from 61 to 55 orders, the fourth has been adopted in the case of one order only out of 55, and the last of the series has been modified by reduction from 466 groups to 169. The scheme in full detail is given in the first four columns of Imperial Tables XV A-I, XV B and XV D of the Statistical Volume. The scheme for classes, sub-classes and orders only, is given in Subsidiary Table I of this Chapter.

338. Statistics of Occupation.—The presentation of the statistics resulting from the records of occupation is a task of much complexity. The actual figures are presented in Imperial Tables XV and XVI, the former of which is divided into ten sections as follows:—

Section.	Nature of Table.
XV. A-I XV. B(i) XV. B(ii) XV. B(iii) XV. C XV. D XV. E-I XV. E-II XV. E-III XV. E-III	General Table, Provincial and City Summary. General Table, by Districts. Subsidiary occupations of (i) Rent Receivers. agriculturists (actual (ii) Rent Payers. workers only). (iii) Field Labourers. Mixed occupations (not prepared for Burma) Distribution by Religion. I. Provincial Summary. Industrial II. Distribution by Districts. Statistics III. Ownership of Factories. IV. Caste or Race of factory managers.

Table XV. A-I gives for the province as a whole, for Burma Proper and for the Specially Administered Territories, and for the Cities of Rangoon and Mandalay, details of the numbers and sex of the workers, the extent to which they are partially agriculturists in their occupations, and the number of dependents, for each of the four clases, the twelve sub-classes, the fifty-five orders and the 169 groups of occupations of the adopted scheme of classification. Table XV. A-II gives the same particulars for each district, but omits the minor occupational groups. It differs both as to arrangement and contents, from the corresponding table of 1901. In arrangement, the districts have been arranged vertically and occupations horizontally, instead of the contrary system previously adopted. This enables a comprehensive view of each occupational head, whether class, subclass, order or group, for the whole province to be obtained on one page of the statement; whereas by the method adopted in 1901, it was necessary to peruse

12 pages to obtain the same particulars. In contents, Table XV. A-II gives for non-agricultural occupations six columns of information for each unit, instead of three, the additional columns being ;-

- (a) total workers and dependents,
- (b) partly agriculturalists, males, (c) partly agriculturalists, females.

Table XV. B is a statement not previously compiled. It is in three partsgiving statistics for the subsidiary occupations of agriculturalists, according as they are rent receivers, rent payers or agricultural labourers respectively. Table XV. C is an optional table for exhibiting combined occupations. It was not deemed suitable for conditions in Burma, and has not therefore been compiled. Table XV. D gives the distribution of occupations by classes, sub-classes, orders This is also a new table not having hitherto been comand groups by religion. piled for Burma. Table XV. E is divided into four parts and is devoted to an analysis of various aspects of the special industrial census conducted for the first time in conjunction with the census of 1911. Table XVI was devised primarily to indicate the correspondence between the traditional and actual occupations of various castes. It was not compiled for Burma in 1901. It has now been compiled in a modified form to analyse the occupations of Europeans, Armenians and Anglo-Indians only. In addition to the various sections of Imperial Table XV and the information given in Table XVI the following Subsidiary Tables have been compiled:-

Subsidiary Table I.—General distribution by occupation.

II.—Distribution by occupation in Natural Divisions. Subsidiary Table

III.—Distribution of the agricultural, industrial, commer-Subsidiary Table cial and professional population in Natural Divisions and Districts.

IV.—Occupations combined with agriculture (where agri-Subsidiary Table culture is the subsidiary occupation).

Subsidiary Table V.—Occupations combined with agriculture (where agriculture is the principal occupation).

Subsidiary Table VI.—Occupations of females by sub-classes, and selected orders and groups.

VII.—Selected occupations, 1911 and 1901. Subsidiary Table Subsidiary Table

VIII.—Occupations by religions.

IX.—Proportional distribution by selected occupations Subsidiary Table of Hindus and Mahomedans.

X(a).—Number of persons employed in the Postal Depart-Subsidiary Table ment on 10th March 1911.

X(b).—Number of persons employed in the Telegraph Subsidiary Table Department on 10th March 1911.

X(c).—Number of persons employed in the Irrigation Branch of the Public Works Department on 10th Subsidiary Table March 1911.

Subsidiary Table X(d).—Number of persons employed on the Burma Railways on 10th March 1911.

#### RELIABILITY OF OCCUPATIONAL STATISTICS.

339. Instructions for the Record of Occupations.—There is no class of entries in the census record affording such opportunities for error as those connected with occupations. On account of these difficulties special attention was given in the instructions to enumerators to obtain as complete and correct a return as possible.

In the enumeration schedules three columns were devoted to the record of

employment as follows ;-

Column 9.—Principal occupation of actual workers; Column 10.—Subsidiary occupation of actual workers;

Column 11.—Means of subsistence of dependents.

The following instructions to enumerators were issued: —

"Column 9.—(Principal occupation of actual workers.) Enter the principal means of livelihood of all persons who actually do work or carry on buniness, whether personally or by means of servants, or who live on house-rent, pension, etc."

Despite the amount of instruction given, in a preliminary experimental enumeration, thirteen distinct classes of errors in recording employments were detected, and it was found necessary to issue a further series of supplementary instructions dealing with the specific mistakes detected, immediately prior to the census enumeration.

- 340. Reliability of the Statistics.—In the Census Report for India for 1901 the reliability of the statistics of occupations is considered, and the factors tending towards their general departure from actuality are classified under seven heads:—
  - (i) limitation of the return to one particular date,

(ii) omission to tabulate fully subsidiary occupations,

- (iii) impossibility of correctly recording mixed occupations,
- (iv) mistakes in the entries in the enumeration schedules,

(v) vagueness of entries,

- (vi) uncertainty between makers and sellers, and as regards factory workers,
- (vii) errors in compilation.

It is necessary to consider the nature of the operation of these disturbing factors, and their effect on the statistics, before actually discussing the statistics themselves.

- 341. Limitation of Occupation Return to one Particular Date.—The record of the census in March tends to depress the returns for all occupations carried on during the rainy season and the cold weather, and to enhance those which have their busiest season in the hot weather. Thus at the time of census, agricultural operations are nearly at their lowest ebb, and a large number of persons engaged in agriculture for the greater part of the year are temporarily engaged in other pursuits. Similarly, the inland fishing industry has almost ceased by March, and many of the fishermen are then most probably working at other occupations. On the other hand, occupations, such as transport and ricemilling in the realm of large industries, and others, such as the drama, itinerant trading, and ice and ærated water manufacture, among small industries, are at their busiest at the time of the census. Human nature, being as it is, it is probable that the principal occupation given is that being followed at the time of the The statistics tend to represent the state of industry at a time of the year when the most representative of the provincial occupations are at a low ebb. It is convenient in many respects to have the census at a date between the agricultural seasons when the mass of the population is in a state of comparative leisure, but there are disadvantages in the fact that the occupational statistics reflect a state of transition between two seasons rather than the normal state of the province for the greater portion of the year.
- 342. Subsidiary Occupations.—Both Mr. Eales and Mr. Lowis have enlarged upon the versatility of the Burman in his methods of securing a livelihood. Mr. Eales considered that any attempt to return complex and combined occupations would have been an endless and useless task, as the Burman is a jack of all trades and a very large number of Burmans have worked at all sorts of employments. Mr. Lowis agrees, as the following extract from paragraph 202 of the Census Report of 1901 will show:—

"In giving prominence to what I may call the industrial versatility of the Burman Mr. Eales merely enunciates what is a well-known fact to every officer who has had any experience of the province. In India it might no doubt be instructive to learn how many field labourers, for instance, were also cart-drivers. There would be some guarantee that the figures would not fluctuate to any very great extent from year to year. In Burma, on the other hand, the indigenous field labourer who returned his subsidiary occupation as that of a cart-driver one year might very well give it as that of a toddy-tree climber a second and of a fisherman or a sawyer a third. The ploughman who during one season spent his spare hours in earning a little money by wood-cutting might during another devote them to lime boiling, and it is clear that for spasmodic workers of this kind figures regarding dual occupations would be of no practical utility."

In paragraph 354 below, in the note on the industrial organisation of an Upper Burma village contributed by Mr. Furnival, C.S., Settlement Officer of Myingyan, it is shewn that even highly specialised occupations are conducted in the spare time and vacant seasons of agriculturalists. It is beyond the capacity of the census enumerator to record this industrial versatility in the schedules. Subsidiary

occupations are recorded in but few of their numerous manifestations. But it is not only in the absence of the record of subsidiary occupations that the census return is incomplete. The possibility of the return of several alternatives as the principal occupation renders the comparative numbers dependent on each occupation largely a matter of caprice. The mood of the person enumerated, the personal equation of the enumerator, or an unanticipated reading of an instruction by a supervisor, may effect the returns, when the entry to be recorded is indeterminate. The errors due to dual occupations are perhaps more apparent in a comparison of the statistics of one census with those of the preceding census than in any other aspect. Attention will be drawn to specific instances when separate occupations are being considered.

343. Mixed Occupations.—The staple industry of Burma, agriculture, affords the best illustration of the pitfalls surrounding the record of mixed occupations. Peasant-proprietorship is essentially a mixed occupation. Its name is sufficient indication

Three agricultural	occu	pations in 1901.
Occupation.		Total workers and dependents.
Rent receivers Rent payers	•••	713,508 4,245
Field labourers	•••	4,322,120

pations. Peasant-proprietorship is essentially a mixed occupation. Its name is sufficient indication of its two-fold nature. With reference to the scheme of classification of employments followed in 1901, it formed a combination of the three occupational groups; viz., rent receivers, rent payers and field labourers. In the vulgar tongue, these represented the conventional division of landlord, tenant-farmer and labourer. But the

occupation of a peasant-proprietor is too complex to fit in with this scheme, framed to suit other circumstances. Economically, his work is a combination of all the three occupations mentioned. As a peasant, he was actually entered as a field labourer; as a proprietor, he might have been entered as a rent receiver; and the following extract from paragraph 316 of the Census Report for India for 1901 shows that he should really have been entered as a rent payer.

"In Burma the number of field labourers has risen from 682,000 to 4,322,000, but here the increment is due mainly to the entry under this head of "cultivators pure and simple", who might more accurately have been classed as "rent payers"; the number of persons under this latter head, as well as that of rent receivers, is now absurdly small, and the aggregate number of persons shown as having an interest in land is less than a quarter as great as it was ten years ago."

Thus the method of agriculture which the Local Government has adopted as being most suited to provincial requirements, and towards the establishment of which its Land Revenue policy was consciously directed, was a direct source of confusion and error in the tables of occupation at the Census of 1901. Another instance of mixed occupations affecting the reliability of the returns is in the case of gardening and raising of special crops. There is very little separate gardening or special crop-growing in Burma. Such occupations are usually carried on in conjunction with ordinary cultivation, portions of the holding occupied being devoted to general agriculture, and the remainder to a garden, an orchard or to some special crop. It is very largely a matter of chance which occupation, agriculture or gardening, is returned in such instances. Leaving agriculture for trade, the Burmese kôn sôn shop, or general village store, is evidently similar to the manohúri dokàn of Bengal, the keepers of which are mentioned in the Indian Census Report of 1901 as an instance of persons following mixed occupations. Its classification rather than its record is a source of difficulty and its effect on the statistics for trade will be subsequently considered.

344. Mistakes in the Entries in the Enumeration Schedules.—It is improbable that there are any mistakes in the entries in the enumeration schedules of the class mentioned as being most frequent in India, those due to confusion of the caste or traditional occupation with the occupation actually followed. Nor are there any suggestions of wilful mis-statements by persons wishing to pretend to an occupation more respectable than that actually followed. Mistaken entries are rather due to the disregard or misinterpretation of instructions, or to a blind following of one particular rule or instruction to the exclusion of the remainder. For instance, at the preliminary experimental enumeration, it was discovered that there was numerous class of mistakes due to the entry of a son or a wife, assisting the head of the family in the working of his land, being shown either as a dependant or a coolie. Instructions were issued to prevent these mistakes and to enter such assistants in the same category as the head of the

family. These were taken as being absolute instructions that a son or wife who so assisted must be so entered, even though they might follow another occupation.

- 345. Vagueness of Entries.—Despite elaborate and detailed instructions to the contrary, entries such as coolie, saing shin (shop-keeper), se (bazaar), se yaung (bazaar seller), se saing (bazaar stall), mi yata (railway), asoya (government), saye (clerk), lè (field) were frequently found in the schedules. In all such cases, attempts were made by a consideration of the remaining entries on the same schedule and the race and religion of the person with the insufficiently described occupation, to determine more specifically what the occupation really might be, and where possible a more specific occupation was entered. But in the majority of cases the entry had to be consigned to the groups specially allotted to receive vague and unspecified occupations. This was especially the case with respect to the entries of village trades in which the entries se (bazaar), se thè and se yaung (bazaar sellers), se saing (bazaar stall), kôn thè (trader), and kôn yaung (seller of goods) appeared with monotonous regularity.
- 346. Uncertainty Respecting Makers and Sellers.—The main heads of "Industry" and "Trade" necessitate that a clear distinction should be drawn between the maker and the seller of any commodity. But the language of common life frequently fails to make any distinction between the two. Indeed there is frequently no such distinction in actual fact in small town and village life, where the maker of an article generally sells it also. If the word fisherman is used to denote the person who sells fish, as well as the person who catches fish, it is because the two functions are usually performed by one and the same person. Similarly, in the case of such terms as butcher, baker, potter, confectioner, even in Europe, the economic process of the division of labour has not proceeded sufficiently far to differentiate in common language between the person preparing the commodity for sale and the person actually effecting the sale. It is natural that in Burma where economic development is far more backward, distinctions should be less marked over a wider range of employment. In all such cases, it has been assumed that the person against whom such an entry has been recorded actually made or prepared the article for sale, and his occupation has been so classed. On the whole it may be said that the attempt to distingiush between "Trade" and "Industry' however necessary it may be, is in advance of the actual conditions existing in Burma, and the resulting statistics do not possess a high degree of reliability.
- 347. Errors in Compilation.—It is inevitable that possibilities of error should arise in the reduction of the thousands of diverse entries into 169 groups. In Burma, where there was one tabulation office only for the whole province, the error, due to different interpretations of the same entry, was reduced to a minimum. The occupations for the city of Rangoon were first tabulated and a Burmese alphabetical index of every occupation returned was prepared. To these were added all the occupations tabulated at the Census of 1901. The occupations so recorded were then allotted by the Superintendent with the assistance of a general index of occupations (prepared by the Census Commissioner for India) for the 169 groups of the classified scheme. Any fresh occupation subsequently met with, was incorporated into the Burmese alphabetical index which thus gradually became a comprehensive and uniform standard for all possible occupations. But in the work of tabulation numerous errors were discovered. Slight local differences of terminology might indicate a difference of occupation which escaped notice at the time of its allotment to its appropriate group. There was always a tendency, difficult to check, to use an abbreviation for the return of any occupation lengthily described which appeared to fit in with an occupation for which an abbreviation Another tendency on the part of the occupational tabulation staff was to save the time and trouble of consulting the index by relying on the memory for the group numbers of each occupation, and several errors due to this practice were detected. Some errors escaped detection until the final figures were compared with the statistics of similar occupation for 1901. Any marked discrepancies discovered were made the occasion for a re-examination of the tabulation operations in some instances reaching as far back as the process of slip copying. By this method several important errors were detected and the figures rectified.
- 348. General Conclusions as to Reliability.—In paragraph 317 of including Census Report for 1901 the following quotations are given as to the general

reliability of the occupational statistics compiled from the census records. Mr. Baines in his report on the Census of India in 1891 wrote:—

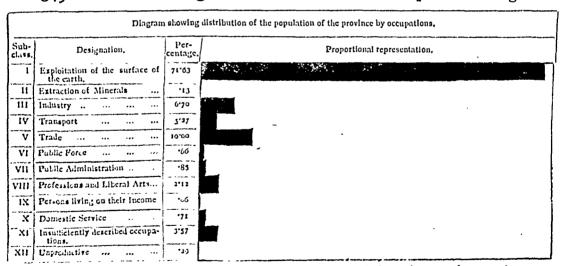
"It may be gathered from these remarks that a high value is not attached to the results of the census of occupation. This is true, and the opinion is not confined to those who have had the administration of the operations in India alone. In some of the countries in Europe the subject is excluded altogether from the enumeration, and in one at least, which need not be named, much forethought and many elaborate instructions were rewarded by results with which the census authorities thought it advisable not to mislead the public, by including with the rest. In Germany, as well as in the United States, it has been decided that a comprehensive industrial survey, obtained by dint of detailed enquiry, spread over a considerable time, is preferable to the rough and ready return which is all that it falls within the capacity of a synchronous census to furnish."

In the report on the Census of England and Wales in 1891 it is said that :-

"A census does not supply data which are suitable for minute classification or admit of profitable examination in detail. The most that it is reasonable to expect from data so collected is that they shall give the means of drawing such a picture of the occupational distribution of the people as shall be fairly true in its main lines, though little value can be attached to the detailed features. It is not wise to demand from a material a result for the production of which it is unsuited."

Mr. Baines repeated his opinion that detailed information as to the industrial organization of a country cannot be obtained by the machinery of a general census, in which opinion he was supported by Sir Robert Giffen. In Burma owing principally to the existence of dual and mixed occupations to such an exceptional extent it is probable that the degree of reliability is less than in other countries. In India, the existence of caste may raise some difficulties owing to the confusion of the actual with the traditional occupation; but in Burma the absence of caste and the period of rapid transition through which the province has been passing, have conjointly produced a versatility impossible to reduce to statistics. The figures for the broad divisions of classes, sub-classes, and in most cases the orders, of occupations may be accepted with a certain amount of confidence, but for the individual groups where the errors have not been eliminated by the operation of large numbers, they must be received with considerable hesitation.

# MAIN FEATURES OF THE RETURN. 349. Relative Strength of each Class of Occupations.—A general



review of the proportions of the population supported by the twelve main subclasses of occupations, reveals the decided preponderance of agricultural and allied pursuits over all the remaining occupations combined. The first sub-class, "The exploitation of the surface of the earth," which included the groups of occupations combined under the orders of "Pasture and Agriculture" and "Fishing and Hunting" supports 71 63 per cent. of the population, against 28 37 per cent. supported by all the remaining industries of the province. It has already been stated that these proportions are based on records taken at a period when agricultural operations are almost at their slackest for the whole year, and consequently many persons normally engaged in agriculture are entered under other occupations. It is therefore probable that on the whole more than 72 per cent. of the inhabitants of the province derive their means of subsistence from direct exploitation of the surface of the earth. Trade is the second of the

sub-classes of occupations supporting exactly ten per cent. of the population. Industry, with its 14 orders of industries connected with textiles, hides and skins, wood, metals, ceramics, chemical products, food, dress and toilet, furniture, building, transport construction, physical forces, luxury and refuse matter, affords the means of subsistence to 67 per cent. of the population only. The extent of vagueness in the occupation records can be gauged by the inclusion of 3.57 per cent. of the population as being supported by employment in the following groups of the classified scheme:—

164. Manufacturers, business men and contractors otherwise unspecified.
165. Cashiers, accountants, book-keepers, clerks and other employés in unspecified offices, warehouses and shops.

166. Mechanics otherwise unspecified.

167. Labourers and workmen otherwise unspecified.

Transport, unduly active at the time of the census, affords support to 3'27 of the population only, the professions and liberal arts following by supporting 2'12 per cent. Of the remaining six sub-classes of occupations, none support so many as one per cent. of the population, and the proportions are so small that they can only be represented graphically with difficulty. Public Administration, Domestic Service and the Public Forces supporting '86, '71 and '66 per cent. respectively of the total population can just be indicated on the diagram at the head of this paragraph; but the proportions of the population deriving their subsistence from the extraction of minerals, from unproductive occupations and from independent means, are too minute for graphic representation. Combining the 12 sub-classes into the four main classes the proportions are as indicated in the following diagram:—

	Distribution of population by four main classes.							
Class.	Designation	Per- entage Proportional representation.						
ТВ — С — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — —	Preduction of raw materials Preparation and supply of material substances. Public infiministration and liberal arts. Miscellaneous	71.76 10.97 3.70 4.57						

350. Participation of Indians in Various Industries.-

to conference or processing the content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of the second content of t		Occupational Distribution l	y religio	ns.				
		Sub-Class.	Percentage of population supported.					
Class.	No.	Designation.	Buddhist.	Animist.	Hindu.	Mahomedan.	Christian.	Others.
$A$ .—Production of $\left\{egin{array}{ll} A$ materials. $\left\{egin{array}{ll} A \end{array} ight.$	t II	Exploitation of the surface of the earth. Extraction of minerals	88·7	6.3	1°1	2'3 6'3	1'7	
B.—Preparation (	111	Tota	87.9 88.4	6.3	1,1	3.3	1.7	
and supply of material substan-	iv v	Transport Trade	72.2 85.4	1.0 3.2	7'3 13'7 3'6	4'9 9'7 6'5	2.0	3
ces.		Total	1.28	2'9	6.2	6.2	6.	.1.
C.—Public Ad- ministration and	VI VII VIII	Public Force Public Administration Professions and Liberal Arts.	57°5 79°5 89°2	3,5 1,6	15.1 1.8 1.8	3.6 3.7	7`4 6'2 5'3	.1 2.2
Liberal Arts.	IX	Persons living princi- pally on their income.	60.6	1,3	10.4	13.8	14,3	.4
		Total	80.0	1,2	5'7	4.8	6.0	1,1
D.—Miscellancous	X XI	Domestic Service Insufficiently described occupations.	72.2 12.2	3.2 3.9	18.0 18.0	6.6	7.4 1.0	. 3
į	XII	Unproductive	84.1	3.2	3.9	7.0	1.3	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
		Total	66.8	5.1	20.0	8 <b>•</b> o	3,1	ı.

One of the most important economic questions connected with industrial conditions in Burma is the extent to which it is dependent on Indian immigration for the

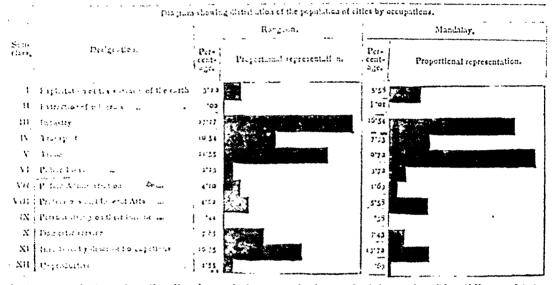
less than 20 per cent, the proportion of Hindus supported by these occupations is over 40 per cent, and in the case of non-indigenous Ma'tomedans it rises to over 50

per cent. Perhaps the best method of exhibiting the contrast between the distribution of the general population of the province and the Indian population, between agricultural and non-agricultural occupations, is to be seen in the marginal statement. The percentages are almost reversed. While the agriculturalists of

	Province.	Hindus.	Maho- medans.
Pasture and Agri-	70'37	23.48	27.07
Remaining occupa-	29.63	76'52	72'93

the whole province are roughly in the proportion of 70 to 30, for the Hindu population the proportion is 24 to 76 and for the Mahomedans (excluding Akyab) it is 27 to 72.

## 352. Population of Cities by Occupations .-



It is natural that the distribution of the population of cities should differ widely from that of the province as a whole. Agriculture loses its predominance, and industry, trade, domestic service, transport, the professions and liberal arts, and the public force and administration, each assume a greater measure of importance in city life. The above diagram illustrates the proportions of the population supported by each of the twelve sub-classes of occupations for Rangoon and Mandalay. Among their characteristic differences is the greater dependence of Rangoon on industry and of Mandalay on trade; and the greater supply of domestic service in Rangoon. The high percentage of insufficiently described occupations is a feature of city industry, with its large numbers of coolies ready to turn their hands to any class of manual labour and the comparatively large number of occupations not to be described in a simple and single designation.

353. Urban Industries.—There has been no separate statistical analysis of the occupations followed by the populations of the towns of the province. In a few towns, Moulmein, Bassein, Akyab, Insein, Syriam, the occupational distribution is on lines similar to that of Rangoon, with "Industry" supporting a greater population than "Trade". But for the majority of the towns of the province, the distribution would follow that of Mandalay rather than that of Rangoon, "Trade" being of greater importance than "Industry". Generally, the distribution of occupations in towns would show a much larger percentage of population in the first order "Pasture and Agriculture" and consequently in the first sub-class, than is to be found in the cities of Rangoon or Mandalay, while in the remaining eleven sub-classes the distribution would approximate rather to the percentages for the whole province (as illustrated in the diagram at the head of paragraph 348) than to the percentages for Rangoon or Mandalay illustrated in diagram at the head of paragraph 351. The analysis conducted in paragraphs 349 and 350 demonstrates that a disproportionate amount of Indian labour is devoted to those occupations of "Industry", "Transport", "Trade", "Public Administration and Liberal Arts" and "Miscellaneous", which form a distinguishing feature of city and urban life. The Burman, having the opportunity

given by the rapid expansion of the province of selecting between agricultural and urban industry, has chosen the former to a great extent, leaving the immigrant Indian a free field in a large number of urban industries.

354. Burma Village Industries.—A description of the intimate industrial organization of a Burmese village supplements the conception of the nature of the indigenous industries of the province to a greater extent than is to be gathered from a perusal of its general statistics of employment. Mr. Furnival, C.S., Settlement Officer, Myingyan, has contributed the following account of the industries of an Upper Burma village, containing a suggestion that the difference between the economic organization of India and Burma is due to the high social status of women in Burma.

The fallacies underlying the theories of Sir Henry Maine as to Indian Village Communities have been swept away; the facts remain. The village is the industrial unit, "self-sufficing and economically independent to a degree which surprises those who are familiar with the plexus of interests by which the different provinces of European countries are bound together." There are found almost invariably three classes, the landlords, the cultivators and the village artizans and servants. But these classes are bound together by the solidarity of their interests, the whole community is dependent on the agricultural prosperity of the unit. The artizans and servants do not receive payment for each act of service, but they are given at each harvest a specified measure of grain as a remuneration for the service performed throughout the year, blacksmith, carpenter, leather-curer, washerman, waterman, potter, barber are paid in kind when the harvest has been gathered; even the priest and beggar then receive their portion.

The economic structure of Mongol Society has received less adequate

attention, and the striking contrast between India and Burma may therefore be deemed worthy of attention. In both cases the fundamental interest is agriculture, and between the purely agricultural classes the contrast is not immediately It is otherwise however with the organization of the non-agricultural interests; here the difference lies on the surface. And closer scrutiny of the agricultural community shows that in this also the difference is reflected.

resemblance is superficial, merely the result of analogous conditions.

The absence of watermen and washermen from a Burman village seems but a trivial matter: they may not have differentiated out from the primitive self sufficing individual: their absence may be due to some accident of correlated variation in development. It is possible however that this apparent triviality may be of deep significance. Some chance heard scrap of intimate conversation at the well side, a glimpse of silk flashing in the sun, and a complexion delicately powdered suggest a solution of the problem. The waterman is not wanted because the women fetch the water; wives and daughters, and particularly daughters, find at the village well or tank an opportunity for social reunion, for gossip and for other things, while in a country where open air bathing is a rule, and mixed bathing not prohibited, the absence of the washerman could without rashness be Whether the absence of the barber can thus be accounted for is prognosticated. one of the mysteries of the zenana; certainly in Burma if the husband has a fancy to go bald headed, you may see his wife bending over him anxiously as she scrapes

away at a half shorn pate.

The women however cannot perform the duties of smith, carpenter and potter; and these are necessary as in India. But they are not restricted to the In one village there will be a colony of blacks miths, in another of carpenters, in another of cart-makers, in another of wheel-wrights--all these are different occupations—in another of potters, and in another basket-makers. Each trade will serve the surrounding country over a distance varying with the nature of their occupation and the reputation of their wares. Portability and demand are the most important factors; villages where pottery is carried on are comparatively numerous, pots are bulky and do not travel well, while some clay more or less suitable is everywhere to be obtained; one man can carry a load of knives for forty miles, and a single village may supply the greater part of the district.

One or two examples will explain the organization better than pages of Kuywa is a village near the high road eight miles from the trading centre of Nyaungu on the Irrawaddy river; here pottery is carried on. Chaukkan is a village two miles to the south-east, and lying further both from the high road and from Nyaungu; here they carry on the work of blacksmiths. Kabyu is 16 miles due east of Chaukkan, but over twenty by the tortuous jungle cart-tract. Chaukkan obtains its pots from Kuywa and its cart-wheels from Kabyu, wheels of inferior quality however are obtained from Nyaungu, while the bodies of the carts are made in Chaukkan and sold to Kuywa, as are the heavy knives and other metal implements of agriculture. Kuywa also obtains its cart-wheels from Kabyu, while both villages go some ten miles to the east for the plaited trays which are used in winnowing, and for one particular variety both villages travel nearly twenty miles. Between Kabyu and these two villages the cart-wheels are the only bond of trade, but at Kabyu there is a similar variety in the source of their domestic implements. Pots and coarse iron work are obtained from a village ten miles off on the north-east, knives from a village forty miles away near the centre where they sell their agricultural produce, the bodies of the carts come from a village seven or eight miles to the south-west.

In other occupations the same localisation exists; in one village there are carpenters, in another scribes, in another a considerable income is earned by dyeing the yellow garments of the priesthood. Where the occupation is complex the different stages may be divided amongst different villages; this is the case with the lacquer work of Pagan, the baskets being made in one village rough lacquered elsewhere, then the design traced in another village, the only final stage

conducted in Pagan itself.

I have suggested above that the social status of women in Burma affords a possible solution of the difference between the economic organisation of Burma and India. The connection between the two is not however evident until the composition of the village is considered. Most of the villagers are cultivators, and even some of the above occupations are only conducted in the spare time and vacant seasons of agriculturalists. An enquiry into the birthplace of the cultivators of the village show that a large proportion have no hereditary connection with the village, and that among those who are hereditary occupants the large majority have only inherited their position on the mother's side. The village which I propose to consider is old established, it is mentioned among the nineteen villages which formed the traditional nucleus of the empire of Pagan, and may, I believe, be considered typical of the non-official Upper Burma village, a non-official village being one in which there were no hereditary service dues. In a single survey unit, enclosing an area of about one square mile, there are 28 occupants cultivating 49 holdings. Most of these cultivate the land on mortgage from the owner, mortgage being a customary form of tenancy. As regards one of these no information was obtained; and there remain therefore 27 people cultivating 48 holdings. As regards ten families, occupying 16 holdings, both husband and wife were immigrants from another village, while two holdings are occupied by the son of one of these immigrants. Of the remainder, 9 holdings were cultivated personally by the headman and his co-heirs, who own beside the area cultivated by them, two-thirds of the land cultivated by other people; but except for this single hereditary land owning family, only two people, occupying five holdings, can claim on the side of both parents hereditary residence in the village, while eight people occupying 16 holdings can claim hereditary occupation on the same land on the In not a single case is there a claim to hereditary residence on the female side. male side only.

It is not claimed that this enquiry is exhaustive, it does nothing more than indicate a line of research. But it is difficult to resist the provisional conclusion that there has been at work a custom by which the males of every generation set forth from their native village, and took up their residence where they found their wives. This would lead so naturally to the plexus of economic interests above described that it can only be regarded as probable that the one is a sequence of

the other.

\* \* \* \*

In Lower Burma, the localisation of industry is carried to an even further extent than in Upper Burma. In the numerous new villages founded during the colonisation of the delta districts the whole of the energies of the inhabitants have been devoted to extensions of cultivation, and general requirements have necessarily been obtained from the older villages and small towns established prior to the rapid influx of population. The excellent water communication existing renders the

carriage of even bulky communities over long distances a comparatively easy matter, and tends to facilitate the concentration of industries in the villages where they have been long established. The comparative proximity to Rangoon and the ease with which European articles can be obtained, have also tended to retard the growth of special village industries in the more recently founded villages of Lower Burma and to perpetuate their dependence on the larger and older villages for their requirements.

The industrial system thus described, with a comparatively high degree of specialization and division of labour, differs markedly from that to be found in India generally. It may be contrasted with that existing in the Punjab and

Bengal as described in their Census Reports for 1901.

### As for the former:-

"Under the old social system of these provinces, every tract, and to a certain extent, every village, was a self-contained economic unit, in which were produced the simple manufactures required by the community. This system facilitated the development of a caste system based on hereditary occupation. Below the land-holding tribe, and subject to its authority, were the various sacerdotal, artizan and menial classes, which have more or less crystallized into castes and these castes were, economically and socially, closely dependent on the dominent tribes who owned the land and controlled its allotment. These castes were all more or less servile, and were paid by a share of the produce of the soil, or, more rarely, by fixed allowances in kind, cash payments being probably a very recent innovation.

by fixed allowances in kind, cash payments being probably a very recent innovation.

"Thus each tribe, at least, if not each village, was, economically, a water-tight compartment, self-contained and independent of the outside world for the necessaries of life, but for commodities not obtainable within its own borders it depended on foreign sources of supply and on the outside castes such as the Labanas, or salt-traders, who formed no part of the tribal or village community. Thus there have never arisen in this part of India, any great industries. Foreign trade, necessarily confined to the few large towns, was limited to superfluities or luxuries, and such industries as existed were necessarily on a small scale. Further, inasmuch as each community was absolutely independent, as far as necessaries are concerned, the few industries which supplied luxuries never became firmly rooted and have succumbed at the first breath of competition. Everywhere in our official literature one reads of struggling industries in the small towns, though fostered by intermittent official encouragement, dying of inanition. The causes seem obvious enough. Everything essential can be, and for the most is, made in the village or locality, so that there never is a demand for imported articles of ordinary make, those made by the village artizans, however inferior in quality, satisfying all requirements."

### In Bengal:-

"The duties and remuneration of each group are fixed by custom, and the caste rules strictly prohibit a man from entering into competition with another of the same caste. In many districts, the barber, washerman, blacksmith, etc., each has his own defined circle (brit or shashan) within which he works, and no one else may attempt to filch his customers, or jajmans, from him on pain of severe punishment at the hands of the caste committee. The exclusive right to employment by the people in the circle constituting a man's brit is often so well-established, that it is regarded as hereditable property, and, with Mahomedans is often granted as dower. The method of payment often consists of a fixed sum for regular services, e.g., to the blacksmith for keeping the plough in order, to the barber for shaving and hair-cutting, to the leather-dresser for supplying country shoes and leather straps for plough-yokes and the like, and special fee on particular occasions, such as to the village midwife, who is usually the wife of the cobbler or drummer, for the delivery of a child, and to the barber on the occasion of marriages."

Thus, owing partly to the absence of any restraining influence of the nature of caste, and partly to the higher social position of women in Burma, the Burmese village is far less a purely self-contained industrial unit than the Indian village. is a somewhat paradoxical result that the industrial versatility of the Burman tends to a local specialization of industry. And yet the result on examination is natural. Among less advanced communities, rigid and definite boundaries between separate industries leads to the establishment of whole-time hereditary craftsmen and artizans in each residential unit. The absence of such hard and rigid lines of demarcation, coupled with a high degree of dual occupation, leads to specializa-Each village having only part-time tion by localities rather than by individuals. labour available for its arts and crafts, finds it more economical to specialize in a small number of directions, rather than attempt with inadequate labour resources to cover the whole range of village industry. The remarkable agricultural development of the province during the past thirty years has tended to perpetuate this system. The more the agricultural development of the to perpetuate this system. The more the agricultural development of the country demanded labour, the less possibility was there of full-time labour being available for setting up a complete and self-sufficing provision of arts and crafts in each residential unit. It is obvious that the village industries in Burma, not being so essential, and personal, and local, as the village industries

India, are in danger of European competition to a much greater extent than those of India. The force of public opinion which in India prevents a villager from taking a living from his neighbour by using imported articles, scarcely exists in Burma. It is quite a different matter to buy an article of European manufacture when the person supplying similiar articles lives in the same village, and when he lives in a village miles away. One of the most striking features of Burmese village life is the extent to which imported commodities are used in preference to those of local manufacture.

355. Distribution of occupations in each natural division.-

	Sub-law.	Sub-class. Percentage of p		of population	supported.	
No	Designation.	Central Hasin.	Deltaic Plains.	Northern Hill Districts.	Coast Ranges.	Specially Administered Territories.
\$ :	<b>,</b>	3	4	5	6	7
ī	Explication of the surface of the earth,	68.7	71'3	72.2	75.8	76.3
11	Extraction of miner-	ı,		.6	.3	'1
III IV		8`5 3'5 9'9 '3	5'9 3'4 11'4	4.0 7.0	5°5 3°1 7'8	6:4 2:1 8:6
VII VII	Public Force Public Administra-	.ક .ક	.5 .9	1.0	.5 .7	5 1.0
VIII	Professions and Liberal Arts.	<b>2</b> 15	1.0	24	1.4	3.3
ΙX	Persons living on income.	***	•:	, ••• .	ı.	
X	Demestic Service	.6	.9	.7	·6	·5
IX	Insufficiently des- cribed.	4,1	3.2	3.0	3.8	3,1
XII	Unpreductive	4	.3	ا د	.3	•2

There is nothing striking in an analysis of the distribution of occupations over the five natural divisions of the province. Agriculture causes the occupations in the first sub-class, concerning occupations devoted to the exploitation of the surface of the earth, to predominate in each division, the percentage of the total population ranging from 68.7 in the Central Basin to 76.3 in the Specially Administered Territories. The Northern Hill Districts and the Coast Ranges supply the largest percentages of population supported by the extraction of minerals, though if actual numbers had been taken, the order of precedence would have been considerably modified. The home textile industries, and such village industries as the preparation of food and dress, give the Central Basin and the Specially Administered Territories an unanticipated precedence in "Industry." The percentages for transport are paradoxical, the percentage of population supported by transport industries being greatest in the Northern Hill Districts. This can be explained by the fact that communications are so bad that it needs a larger percentage of the population to provide the existing inadequate facilities of transport, than suffices to provide the immeasurably superior transport of the more advanced portions of the province. Trade naturally is at its greatest in the wealthy districts of the Deltaic plains, but the range of the percentages from 78 to 11.4 is not wide. The somewhat surprising distribution of the percentages of the persons supported by the professions and liberal arts has a rational explanation. If the comparison had been for actual numbers instead of for percentages then the supremacy of the districts of the Central Basin and the Deltaic plains would have been obvious. Subsidiary Table II gives a further analysis for a few of the orders and groups of occupations, and Subsidiary Table III, analyses the various aspects of the distribution of the Agricultural, Industrial, Commercial and Professional population for the cities and for each district and natural division of the province.

356. Workers and Dependents.—One of the most difficult questions to decide is the boundary line to be drawn between workers and dependents. The general instructions issued have already been quoted. These were supplemented by additional instructions framed on the examination of the schedules prepared in a preliminary experimental enumeration. It was impossible to frame

specific rules as to the age at which children assisting their parents in their occupation ceased to be dependents and become workers. In the case of

		Sub-class.	Percent	age of
Class.	No.	Designation.	Workers,	Depen- dents.
Production of raw materials.	I	Exploitation of the surface of the earth. Extraction of mine-	55 57	45 43
		rals.		
		Total	55	45
Preparation and supply of material substances.	III V V	Industry Transport Trade	58 37 57	42 43 43
		Total	57	43
Public Admin-	VI VII	Public Force Public Adminis- tration.	53 39	47 61
istration and \( \) Liberal Arts.	VIII	Professions and Liberal Arts.	56	44
	IX	Independent	38	62
		Total	52	48
Miscellaneous {	X XI XII	Domestic Unspecified Unproductive	69 60 <b>7</b> 6	31 40 24
_		Total	62	38
Whole Province		•>	56	44

agriculture, the general rule followed was that if the assistance of a wife or a member of the cultivator's family was sufficient to prevent recourse to hired labour, which would otherwise have necessary, then the person assisting should be shown as a worker and not as a dependent. Many references were made in the case of domestic industries such as cotton and silk weaving. In such cases it was laid down that the payment of wages was to be the determining criterion and that weaving and sewing for household use only should not entitle the persons so occupied to be entered as a worker. insistence of wages as a criterion of a worker in the textile trades, while it was dispensed with in the case

of agricultural operations, had a rather disturbing effect on the returns. Members of families who assisted in agriculture and also performed household weaving, in both cases without specific wages, were invariably entered as agricultural workers. A large part of the reduction in the number of textile workers as compared with the number in 1901 was due to the imposition of the wages test in the case of non-agricultural occupations.

The relative proportions of workers and dependents in India and Burma reflects the difference between their social and industrial conditions. In India

Proportions of workers and dependents.					
			Workers.	Dependents.	
India (1901) Burma (1911)	•••		47 56	53 44	

among the more respectable classes of both Hindus and Mahomedans, it is not considered proper for a woman to work, and there is a tendency to show her as a dependent even though she may, as a matter of fact, be a worker. In Burma there is no such prejudice against women being considered workers, and consequently the workers are in excess

of the dependents in the proportion of 56 to 44, whereas in India they are in a minority in the proportion of 47 to 53.

It is natural that the largest number of dependents should be found among persons living on their income and in the security of occupation in the public administration. The percentages of 39 for workers and 61 for dependents is identical with those for government workers in India in 1901. Apart from these two sub-classes the workers in all the remaining classes and sub-classes outnumber the dependents. There are of course several orders and groups where the dependents exceed the workers but these are exceptions and the general rule is for the workers to be the more numerous. In the largest group "Pasture and Agriculture" the workers comprise 55 per cent. and the dependents 45 per cent., nearly reversing the percentages in India in 1901 for the same group, with 46 per cent. of workers and 54 per cent. of dependents. One of the causes of the low proportions of dependents to workers in the sub-classes of "Industry", "Commerce," "Trade" and the domestic and unspecified industries, is the higher proportion of Indians participating in these sub-classes of employments. Being largely immigrants, they have not the same established family life as the indigenous population, and the number of dependents amongst them is consequently reduced.

357. Occupations of Females.—The difference between social

industrial conditions in India and in Burma were, it was noticed, reflected in their respective proportions of dependents to actual workers. It is still more strikingly apparent in the proportions of male and female workers. In India in 1901 there were 450 females to every 1,000 males recorded as being actual workers, in Burma the proportion recorded at the census of 1911 is 764 females to every 1,000 males. There is a wide range of variation among the 12 sub-classes of occupations rising in the case of trading occupations to 1,167 females per thousand males. It was to be anticipated that the proportion of female workers would be low in occupations connected with public administration, transport and the professions and liberal

arts. Also, the conditions of domestic service in India are so widely different from those to be found in England that the low

proportion of 230 female domestics to every thousand males is easily understood. Among the orders of occupations, and still more among the groups, the variations are even wider than among the sub-classes. The principal orders and groups in which the females out-number the males are given in the second marginal statement. The weaving and spinning of silk and cotton are largely domestic industries, generally performed by the female members of the agricultural The social position of the family. Burmese woman is reflected in the large share of the trading occupations which fall to their lot. Excluding groups of imperfectly described occupations there are nine occupational groups

which support more than 20,000 female workers. These are given in the third marginal statement. The low proportion of females in Group 56, "Rice pounders and huskers and flour grinders" is due to the inclusion of the operations of rice mills in this group. This occupation is partly a domestic and partly a mill industry. In the former case, females predominate, in the latter, the workers are almost exclusively males.

Industrial 358. Special Census.—In order to remedy the defects of the ordinary census record of

	Sub-class.	Number of females
No.	Designation.	per 1,000 males.
I	Exploitation of the surface of the earth.	822
- 11	Extraction of minerals	369
111	Industry	883
iv	Transport	243
V	Trade	1,167
VI	Public Force	42
VII	Public Administration	121
VIII	Professions and Liberal Arts.	191
IX	Independent	227
Z.	Demestic Service	230
XI	Insufficiently described .	427
XII	Unproductive	609
	Whole Province	764

Order.	Group.		Females per 1,000 males.
ı		Income from rent of agri- cultural land.	1,551
6	•••	Textiles	11,325
•••	21	Cotton spinning, sizing and weaving.	17,583
•••	27	Silk spinners and weavers	3,484
	3S	Basket makers, etc	1,066
•••	47	Potters and earthern pipe and bowl makers.	
30	•.	Trade in pottery	1,560
33		i rade in food stuffs	1,405
	146	Fish dealers	1,724
	120	Vegetable sellers	1,623
•••	122	Tobacco, opium, etc.	5,640
41	••	Trade of other sorts	1,216
•••	155	Midwives, compounders, nurses, etc.	1,398

,	,	Female v	vorkers.
Group.	Occupation.	Actual Number.	Per 1,000 males.
2	Cultivators	1,559,824	839
4	Field labourers	395,944	767
2.1	Cotton spinners and weavers.	91,,00	17,583
I	Rent Receivers	68,997	1,151
120	Vegetable sellers, etc.	41,963	1,623
116	Fish dealers	38,655	1,724
50	Rice pounders, etc.	28,745	668
1.1	Fishing	27,676	587
to8	Trade in textiles	22,811	1,086

employments, a special industrial census was effected in conjunction with, and supplementary to, the main census enumeration. This was effected by the aid of the owners, agents and managers of mines, factories, works, mills and plantations, in which at least 20 persons were employed. Lists of all such industrial units were first prepared in district offices. Special schedules, devised for the entry of the required information were then distributed to the managers, for record on the date of the census. In addition to these returns of persons employed in private and joint stock undertakings, supplementary returns were also obtained of persons employed on Railways, and in the Post, Telegraph and Irrigation departments of Government service. The first returns of the Special Industrial Census were in some respects defective, and when the figures were closely examined some obvious errors were detected, principally in the returns for rubbet and petroleum extraction. These were rectified in consultation with the district officers concerned. The results have been tabulated in Imperial Table XV-E, Parts I to IV and in Subsidiary Tables X (a), X (b), X (c) and X (d).

359. Large Industries.—The Special Industrial Census and the Departmental and Railway returns of the persons employed on the date of the census

L	arge indust	ries (Actua	l Workers)		-	
Industry.	Number of	Per	Persons employed.			
	industrial units	Males.	Females.	Total.	workers per unit.	
Growing of special products.	Io	3,896	151	4,047	405	
Mines and Petro- leum wells.	38	8,755	251	9,006	237	
Quarries of hard rock.	14	3,963	162	4,125	295	
Textiles Wood	6 82	713	176	889	148	
Metal	11	9,523 2,427	310 59	9,833 2,486	120 226	
Glass and Earthen- ware.	2	153		<sup>1</sup> 53	76	
Chemical	12	11,101	49	11,150	929	
Food	<b>155</b>	27,994	2,065	30,059	194	
Transport construc- tion.	10	4,799	108	4,907	491	
Production and transmission of physical force.	2	267	•••	267	133	
Printing	8	1,746	9	1,755	219	
Total	350	75,337	3,340	78,677	225	

afford the material for investigating the extent to which the introduction of European capital and industrial methods have influenced the occupations of the people. Confining consideration for the present to the industrial returns, apart from those concerning the railway and Government ments, Parts III and IV of Imperial Table XV-E ıllustrate the extent to which large industries are the fruit of European methods or Altomanagement. gether there are 350 industrial units which have been reported as employing 20 or more persons, giving employ--

ment on the date of the census to 78,677 persons, comprising 75,337 males and 3,340 females. Of this total 30,059 are concerned in food industries, 29,872 of

Principal large in	dustries.	
Industry.	No.	European management or direction.
Rice mills Saw mills Petroleum wells and refineries. Tin and wolfram mines	152 82 26	47 25 20 10

these being employed in rice milling operations. Chemical industries form the second largest industrial group with 11,150 workers. Nearly the whole of the workers in the chemical industries, to the number of 10,747, are engaged in the various operations of petroleum refining. The next largest group of industries is that connected with the conversion of timber, which employs 9,833 persons. This is closely followed

9,833 persons. This is closely followed by Mines and Petroleum Wells with 9,006 workers. Transport construction, which employs 4,907 persons, comprises the subsidiary workshops and dock-yards of the Government, and the railway and steamer companies. The growing of special products on a large scale is confined to rubber, an industry just emerging from infancy which returned 4,047 workers. The remainder of the industries are of minor importance and do not call for separate notice.

Except in one or two directions the tendency towards the concentration of industry into large undertakings has operated to a very slight extent in Burma. The only directions in which the large industry has as yet established itself in purely industrial undertakings, beyond experimental and occasional instances are,—

(i) Rice milling.
(ii) Saw milling.

(iii) The extraction and refining of petroleum.

(iv) The Railway and the Irrawaddy Flotilla Steamer Companies.

There is considerable promise for the future in the general mineral wealth of the province and also in its possibilities in the direction of rubber cultivation, but at the date of the census, these industries were in a preliminary stage of development. Even in 1911, it cannot be said of Burma, as was said of India in the Census Report for 1901, that there are many indications that India is entering on a period of great industrial activity. The activities of Burma have been in the

main, devoted to agricultural rather than to industrial expansion. There has recently been a check in the rate of agricultural expansion, but it is impossible

to determine whether this will entail a more rapid industrial expansion in the future.

The general results of the returns from the Postal and Telegraph Departments, the Irrigation Branch of the Public Works Department and the Burma Railways show that there are 47,947 persons engaged in these public or quasi-public services. Of these

Industry.	Europeans and Anglo- Indians-	Indians and Burmans.	Fotal.
Postal Department Telegraph Depart- ment.	47 336	2,845 1,971	2,892 2,307
Irrigation Branch, Public Works De- partment.	29	14,509	14,538
Burma Railways	783	27,427	28,210
. Total	1,195	46,752	47,947

1,195 are Europeans and Anglo-Indians and 46,752 are Indians and Burmans.

#### AGRICULTURAL OPERATIONS.

360. Pasture and Agriculture (Order I).—" Pasture and Agriculture" combined form the first order of the first sub-class of Class A in the scheme of

occupational classification. The marginal statement from the title page of Imperial Table XV-A-II of the Statistical Volume (to which reference must be made for further information in this respect) indicates its position. It is exceptional in being subdivided

Class.	Sub-class.		Order.	Groups.
		Number.	Designation-	
A Production of	I. Exploitation of the surface of the earth.	I S II	Pasture and Agri- culture. Fishing and Hunt- ing.	1 to 13
Raw Materi-	II. Extraction of minerals.	III IV V	Mines Quarries of hard rocks. Salt, etc	16 & 17 18 19 & 20

into five sub-orders, none of the remaining fifty-four orders of occupations being so subdivided. It is further subdivided into thirteen groups. It corresponds generally with Class B of the classification of 1901, but for the purpose of comparison it is necessary to have recourse to the adjusted figures of Subsidiary Table VII. The following statement gives the comparative numbers of the population supported by this main occupation in the two years of enumeration:—

Sub-order.	Group.	Occupation	1911.	1901.	Increase or Decrease.
I(a)	I	Income from rent of Agricultural	8,083,712 2,20,485		+ 1,622,778 - 4,93,023
	3	land. Ordinary cultivators Agents, Managers of landed estates, clerks, rent-collectors, etc.	6,215,154 123	1,420,896	+ 4,794,258 - 3,535
<b>r</b> (b)	4	Farm servants and field labourers Growers of special products and market gardening.	1,467,950 238,511	4,322,872 385,528	— 2,674,922 — 147,017
	5 6	Tea, coffee, cinchona, indigo and rubber plantation.	105	21,120	
<b>I</b> (c)	•	Fruit, flower, vegetable, betel-vine areca nuts, etc., growers. Forestry	238,4c6 42,7 <b>6</b> 5		126,003
1	7	Forest officers, rangers, guards, etc Wood cutters, firewood, lac, cutch and rubber collectors, etc.	5,116 37,649	36,345 4,144 32,201	+ 972
<b>I</b> (d)	9	Raising of farm stock Cattle and buffalo breeders and keepers.	105,944 2,645	<b>67,527</b> 5,900	+ 38,417 - 3,255
	10	Sheep, goat and pig breeders	12,232 35	3,403 473	+ 8,829 - 438
<b>I(</b> c)	13	Herdsmen, shepherd, goat-herds, etc.	91,032 1,459	57,751 25	+ 33,281 + 1,434
Order I	•••	Total, Pasture and Agriculture	8,472,391	6,950,359	+ 1,522,032

Postponing for the time being, an examination into the remarkable discrepancies in the figures for 1901 and 1911, it is seen that the population dependent on pastoral and agricultural pursuits now numbers 8,472,391, or 70.37 per cent. of the population. In 1901 the numbers were 6,950,359 and 67.06 per cent. This increase in the percentage of the agricultural and pastoral population is the natural resultant of the rapid extensions of cultivation that took place in the first portion of the decade 1901—1911. Another manifestation of the same phenomenon has been seen in the movement of the indigenous population from the town to the country in Chapter I of this Report.

361. Ordinary Cultivation.—The occupations comprised in the first order, that of pasture and agriculture, are too unwieldy to form the basis of detailed It is subdivided into five sub-orders, the first of which, viz., ordinary cultivation, maintains 8,083,712 persons or 67.14 per cent. of the population. This sub-order, on reference to the marginal statement in the preceding paragraph, is seen to comprise four groups, roughly corresponding to landlords, cultivators, estate agents and field labourers. Although there is a general harmony in the total figures for the sub-order for 1901 and 1911 respectively, there are large discrepancies between the figures for each group for the two years. The decreases in groups 1, 3 and 4 are due to different principles of classification, or rather to different applications of the principles of classification. Mr. Lowis stated that the classification adopted in 1901 was not suited to the province, and indeed the terms "Rent Receivers" and "Rent Payers", the designations of two of the principal groups, were particularly unsuited to a province where cultivating ownership is the ideal of the Local Government. Profiting by the experience gained in 1901, the term "Rent Payer" was discarded, and the term "Ordinary Cultivator" substituted The discrepancies between the figures for 1901 and 1911, so far as these four occupations are concerned, are principally due to the unsuitable classifi-cation adopted in the former year, which led to the enhancement of the figures for landlords, managers and labourers at the expense of those for ordinary cultivators.

362. Landlords.—Mr. Lowis suggests that the total of 286,182 persons classed as rent receivers must have contained numbers who were actual cultivators.

Income from	rent of agricult	ural land.	
· Year,	Landlords Census Figures.	Acreage occu- pied by non- Agricultural- ists.	
1901	286,182 128,918	1,800,000 2,477,447	

This is borne out by the marginal statement comparing the number of "Rent Receivers" with the acreage occupied by non-Agriculturalists in the years 1901 and 1911 respectively. As the Supplementary Survey did not extend throughout Upper Burma in 1901, the acreage for that year has been estimated from the figures available. The area of between 6 and lord in 1901 is not so convincing as the

and 7 acres per non-cultivating landlord in 1901 is not so convincing as the area of between 19 and 20 acres per non-cultivating landlord in 1911. In view of the proposals for agrarian legislation in the directions

Percentage of population of landford class by religions.	
Buddhist	84.0
Animist	10.3
Hindu	.0
Mahomedan	3.2
Christian	1.6

of the proposals for agrarian legislation in the directions of restriction of land alienation, and protection of tenants, it is important that there should be some knowledge of the number of non-cultivating owners of agricultural land in the province. Knowing the numerous possibilities of error (one of which will be immediately considered) in such a calculation, it would be rash to declare that the number recorded (128,918) can claim any high degree of exac-

titude. It possesses however a fair approach to accuracy, as is demonstrated by its harmony with the administrative statistics of the acreage owned by this class

Percentage of population supported by occupations of banking and money-leading, etc., by religious.

Buddhist 63.7
Animist 1.2
Hindu 18.2
Mahomedan 9.7
Christian 6.5
Others 7

of landlords. An analysis of the composition of the race or nationality of the landlord class is not feasible, but an analysis by religions serves almost the same purpose. Buddhists form 84 per cent. of the landlords and Animists over 10 per cent. The percentages of 9 and 3.2 only for lanclords of the Hindu and Mahomedan religions do not seem to bear out the impression that a large portion of the land in Burma is passing into Indian hands. The second marginal statement is however misleading in that it does not allow for the ownership of land by persons whose noney-lending. If the proportions of bankers and money-

primary occupation is money-lending. If the proportions of bankers and money lenders be examined, there is seen to be a percentage of nearly 28 per cent.

the persons following this occupation who belong to Indian races. A large portion of the land held and controlled by Indians is owned by persons entered under the

designation "money lender," rather than as living on the rent of agricultural land. The two marginal statements just given are unsatisfactory in two respects. They give percentages only instead of actual figures, and they include dependants as well as the actual workers or principals in the occupations. A third statement is given shewing the actual numbers of principals, or workers, of the landlord and the banking and money-lending classes in the province. So far as the returns are to be relied on, they give totals of 4,666 Hindus and 6,845 Mahomedans, either directly

Religious,		Landlords.	Bankers aud money- lenders.
Buddhist Animist Hindu Mahomedan Christian Other	*** *** *** ***	101,282 17,278 1,886 5,675 2,766	4,481 71 2,780 1,170 565 37
Tetal	•••	128,918	9,104

owning land, or controlling land by means of advancing money on mortgage.

363. Cultivators. It is unfortunate that the terms "Ordinary Cultivation" and "Ordinary Cultivators" should have been used as the designations for two distinctions in the scheme of classification. The former is the term denoting Suborder 1(a), and the latter denote: Group 2, one of the four groups of sub-order 1(a). The former comprises all persons who get their living through cultivation, including landlords, managers and labourers. The latter includes actual cultivators only. The want of distinction in the terms is unfortunate, but it was noticed too late to enable a rectification to be attempted. Attention having been drawn to the possibility of confusion owing to the use of almost identical terms to denote different categories, it is hoped that the inconvenience resulting therefrom will be avoided.

Despite the lack of success experienced in 1901 in classifying agricultural operations, the experiment has been repeated in 1911 with the result shewn in the

marginal statement. The second of the occupational groups has been divided into three sub-groups to differentiate between cultivating owners, tenants and faungya cultivators. The population supported by the occupations of this group is 6,215,154, or 51.62 of the total population of the province. The number of actual workers is 3,418,450 or 28:31 of the population. It must be noted that if the wife, or any adult member, assists the head of the

Cultivation	Weikers.	Dependants.
Cultivating can land. Tenants Taungya cultiva- ters.	2,121,273 S29,931 407,232	1,6\$),337 769,380 337,9\$1
Tetal	3.418,456	2,796,69S

family materially in the work of cultivation, such person has been entered as a worker in the same category as the head of the family. Thus, if a cultivating owner is assisted by his wife and two sons, they have been recorded as four cultivating owners in the census returns. Similarly, if a tenant is assisted to the same extent, there would be four persons entered in the returns under the category of tenant.

Disregarding for the moment the returns for the separate sub-groups, it is seen that \$7'4 per cent, of the population supported by ordinary cultivation are Buddhists. Animists and Christians with 7'7 and 1'9 per cent, respectively, are mainly members of indigenous races. There remains therefore only a bare 3 per cent, (2'3 Mahomedan and '7 Hindu) of the population supported by cultivation belonging to the Indian races. Even this meagre percentage rather overestimates the true proportions, because the percentage of Mahomedans is enhanced by a large indigenous Mahomedan nonulation in Algab, District, which

Percentage of cultivators by religions.		
Buddhist Animist Hindu Mahomedan Mahomedan (Akyab ex- cluded),	\$7.4 7.7 .7 .7 .2.3	
Christian	1.9	

indigenous Mahomedan population in Akyab District, which should be excluded in calculating a percentage for Indians only. If this exclusion be effected the proportion of Mahomedans falls to 5 per cent, and of Indians to 12 per cent, of the population supported by cultivation. The concentration of Indians in towns, and their preference for urban to rural industries, have already been considered in paragraph 36 of Chapter I, and paragraph 77 of Chapter IV of this Report, dealing with the "Density of the Population" and with "Birth place" respectively. No analysis of occupation by religions was prepared in 1901, so it is impossible to compare the advances made by the Hindu and Mahomedan populations supported by cultivation in the past ten years. But the absolute numbers of workers and dependents, 42,845 Hindus and 143,136 Mahomedans (or 32,538,

Mahomedans if Akyab be excluded) demonstrate that they have taken but a small share in the extension of cultivation from 8,452,202 acres in 1901 to 15,823,057 acres in 1911. They form but a trifling proportion of the increase in the number of cultivators in the decade. Subsidiary Table IX shews that the proportion of Hindu cultivators is only 10'99 per cent. of the Hindus of the province, while 34'02 per cent. of its Mahomedans (or 13'42 per cent. if Akyab be excluded) are cultivators. These figures justify the conclusion that it is the urban industries of Burma, rather than its agricultural possibilities, that provide the stimulus for its Indian immigration. A small percentage flows from the towns into the rural areas and engages in cultivation, but the total impression produced is of a very minor character.

364. Functions of Indian labour and capital in Burmese agriculture.—As the phase of rapid agricultural expansion has now passed away, it seems to be a convenient time to estimate the respective functions performed by Indian labour and Indian capital in contributing to the development of the province. Briefly, Indian capital has been required to assist in the agricultural development of Burma, and Indian labour to supply an essential contribution to its urban development. The latter portion of this suggestion has already been adequately discussed. The former was incidentally mentioned in paragraph 74 of Chapter III as playing a part in assisting migration from Upper to Lower Burma. But a rather more full description of the part played by Indian capital, and the method of its application, is essential to a correct understanding of the present economic position of the province. The last quarter of the nineteenth century found Lower Burma in a uniquely favourable economic situation. The depreciation of the

Every Executive and Settlement Officer in the delta districts in the first few years of the current century became familiar with the anomaly, that persons holding a valuable grant from Government burned the document, and indignantly disclaimed having any such title. They found that a squatter occupation was readily accepted as a mortgageable security, whereas a grant of land was of no value to obtain capital, when the need for capital was most pressing. The anomaly was represented, and in 1906, the conditions of non-transferability applicable to grants, were extended to land occupied without title. From this date, recently extended land lost its entire value as security for the cost of its transformation from waste to cultivated land. Capital ceased to be advanced on extensions in course of transformation. The danger of the transfer of such land to alien non-agriculturalists was averted, but at the cost of a retardation of the rate of extension.

Thus, experience appears to have decided that the establishment of an indigenous peasant-proprietory in Burma is inconsistent with the rapid extension of cultivated area. Rapidity of extension needs large capital advances, and the only security for such advances in the majority of cases is the land actually extended. To permit such security is to jeopardise the possibility of the cultivator continuing to own his holding. It entails, in a large number of instances, the cultivator ultimately becoming the tenant of the land he has cleared, with the capitalist as landlord. The crux of the whole matter is the immediate transferability of the extended land. If it is transferable, then the peasant fails in many instances to become a proprietor. If it is not so transferable, then rapidity of extension is impossible. It is not suggested that the restrictions on the transfer of land under extension are the sole cause of the decline in the rapidity of the extensions. Indeed in paragraphs 74 and 85 of Chapter III of this report, it is mentioned as one of several contributary causes, among which were the disappearance by appropriation of the easily culturable waste land available, and the contraction of credit following the land boom of the early years of the past decade.

The remarkable progress made in the province by the system of co-operative credit societies as applied to agriculture, suggests that herein lies the solution of the problem of retaining the system of peasant-proprietorship without checking the agricultural expansion of the province for want of capital. So far, co-operative credit has not yet been systematically applied to the problem of encouraging extensions, and it is obvious that there will be many risks and difficulties to be encountered in the process. But the success that has been attained so far in the supply offcapital for agricultural requirements under normal conditions, suggests that it should be possible to extend the utility of the system in a direction so vital

to the future welfare of the province.

365. Cultivating owners and tenants.—The statistics for cultivating owners and tenants afford a means of estimating the degree of success of the policy

of establishing a peasant-proprietory on the soil. Excluding taungya cultivators there is a population of 5,409,941 persons, or 44'94 per cent. of the total inhabitants of the province, supported by ordinary cultivation. Of these, 3,810,610 or 31'65 per cent. comprise cultivating owners and their dependants:

prise cultivating owners and their dependants; and 1,599,331 or 13'29 per cent. are the corresponding figures Excluding dependants the numbers are 2,121,273 and The figures for tenants according to the census returns appear to be hopelessly contradicted by those collected by the Land Records Department. But an examination of what the figures actually comprise, reduces the discrepancy, and suggests that the census figures may be accepted as having a moderately high degree of probability. The principal causes of the divergence are:

Census at a corresponding figures

Cultivation owners.

Tenants

Census at records

(i) The departmental figures exclude all tenancies in which the rent is a share of the produce, this form of tenancy being by far the most frequent in the province.

The census figures include such tenancies;

(ii) The departmental figures include only the principal of the tenancy, the actual tenant, whereas the census figures include all the adult members of the tenants family giving material assistance in the working of the tenancy;

Population supported by ordinary cultivation.			
Class.	Population.	Per cent of total population.	
Cultivating owners	3,810,610 1,599,331	31·65 13·22	
Total	5,109,911	11-31-	

figures for tenancies. 829,951 respectively.

Cultivating owners and : dependants (actual numbers).	
2,121,273	
829,951	
Census and administrative records of tenancies.	
Number of tenants.	
829,951	

(iii) The departmental figures include only that portion of the province under supplementary survey, whereas the census figures are for the whole

province.

The departmental figures would be admittedly more than doubled by the inclusion of metayer tenancies, and these figures would be again doubled by the inclusion of the assisting members of the tenants' families in the census figures. There is therefore nothing inherently improbable in the census figures. The fact that they include those members of the tenants' family who are assisting in the cultivation of the tenancies detracts somewhat from their administrative value. But the fact that the figures for cultivating owners are similarly enhanced permits them to be used for comparative purposes without any degree of uncertainty.

Taking the administrative units of the Pegu and the Irrawaddy Divisions as the areas where extensions have been most rapid, the marginal statement gives

Statistics of cultivating owners and tenants,					
	[	<del></del>		Perce	ntage.
	Owners and Cultivating tenants. owners.	Tenants,	Culti- vating owners.	Ten- ants.	
Province Irrawaddy Division Pegu Division Rest of Province	2,951,224 \$21,202 346,272 2,183,750	2,121,273 258,193 224,664 1,638,416	829,951 163,009 121,608 545,334	61.30	28·12 38·70 35·12

the numbers and proportions of the cultivating owners and tenants to the total cultivators, for the whole province, for these two divisions, and for the rest of the province respectively. The figures demonstrate the same conclusion attained by the more abstract economic discussion of paragraph

363, to the effect that rapidity of extensions are incompatible with the establishment of a peasant-proprietory on the soil. In the two divisions where the extensions of cultivation have been most rapid, the proportions of cultivating owners form 61.30 per cent. and 64.88 per cent. of the total cultivators, against a percentage of 75.03 for the portions of the province where the same rapidity of extension has not been experienced. Whereas tenants in the rest of the province form 24.97 per cent. of the total, in the two divisions of rapid extension they form 38.70 and 35.12 per cent. of the number of cultivators. It is possible to deduce the following general conclusions:—

(i) that peasant-proprietorship, or cultivating ownership, is the normal method of cultivation in Burma, there being approximately three quarters of the cultivators, in the portions of the province unaffected by extensions, who cultivate

their own holdings,

(ii) that the rapid extensions of cultivation in the delta districts, and the financial conditions accompanying such extensions, tended to the creation of a system of landlord and tenant, the extended cultivation passing largely into the hands of the persons who provided the capital, rather than to the agriculturalists who actually effected the transformation of waste areas into cultivated land,

(iii) that the measure adopted to check the development of the system of landlord and tenant; viz., the prohibition of the transfer of recently extended land, tended also to check the rapidity of extension,

(iv) that the establishment of a peasant-proprietory on waste land, and

rapid extensions of cultivation, are mutually incompatible.

366. Cultivating owners and tenants by religions.—The proportions of cultivating owners and tenants by religions, enables the effect of Indian partici-

Population supported by cultivation, arranged by religions.			
Religions.	Cultivating owners.	Tenants.	Tenants per
Buddhists Animists Hindus Mahomedans Christians Others	3,396,978 238,024 20,169 91,452 63,831 156	1,471,428 33,837 21,669 49,340 23,042	43°32 10°01 107°44 53°95 36°10 9°62
Total	3,810,610	1,599,331	41*97

pation in agriculture on the system of ownership and tenancy to be estimated. Among Buddhists there are 43 tenants to every 100 cultivating owners. Among Hindus the number of tenants exceeds the number of cultivating owners in the ratio of 107 to 100. Including Akyab, there are 54 Mahomedan tenants to every 100 cultivating owners of that religion, but if the indigenous Mahomedan cultivators of Akyab be excluded, the proportion rises

to 117 tenants for every 100 owners. To the extent that immigrant Hindus and

Mahomedans have attained a footing in agriculture in Burma, they have introduced a much higher ratio of tenancies than obtains among the indigenous agriculturalists of the country. The comparatively small numbers of such agricultural immigrants, however, prevents these enhanced proportions from appreciably affecting the proportions for the whole province.

367. Field labourers.—It is impossible to institute any effective comparison between the numbers of field labourers as recorded in 1901 and 1911 owing to the

different principles of classification adopted at the two periods. In the current census the term has been restricted to mean roughly the landless agriculturalist, but in 1891 it included all persons entering their occupations under the terms lè lôk and lè thama (cultivator), thi sa lè lôk, mye lunga lôk and lè huga lôk (tenant). The difference in numbers is quite explainable by the difference in the classes included. It is a somewhat striking commentary on the

Field labourers and _ dependants.	
Year.	Population.
1911	4,332,872 1,647,930

legend that in Burma there exist almost unlimited areas of land to be obtained for the clearing, that 1,647,950 agriculturists (912,359 workers and 735,591 dependents)

should be divorced either from ownership or tenancy of the land. Relatively, however, the numbers are but small, the number of field labourers not being enough to provide one for each three owners and tenants. It is this shortage of field labourers, especially during times of prosperity in Upper Burma, which has led to the invasion of a few districts in the vicinity of Rangoon by bands of organised Hindu agricultural labourers. Under effective discipline, they travel from village to village, performing in turn the operations of ploughing, transplanting and reaping. They

Agricultural workers-	
Owners Tenants	2,121,273 829,951
Owners and Tenants.	2,951,224
Field labour- ers.	912,359

are superficially more economical and efficient than the single Burmese labourer hired for the season to conduct all operations, but complaints as to the low quality

of the work performed by this class of Hindu labourers have been made, and it is questionable whether this form of occupation will develop rapidly. The return of so small a number as 34,792 Hindu field labourers and their dependents, or 2'1 per cent. only of the total number of field labourers, is to be attributed to the fact that, at the time of the census, agricultural operations have ceased, and all such wandering gangs were engaged in Rangoon in the rice mills. The Mahomedan field labourers are chiefly immigrants from Bengal into the Akyab District.

Religious distr population sup field lab	ibution of ported by our.
Religion.	Percentage.
Buddhist Animist Hindu Mahomedan Christian	1,3 5,5 1,1 63,4

368. Occupations combined with agriculture.—The combination of other occupations with agriculture as returned in the census schedules, assumes

two aspects, according as agriculture is the principal or subsidiary occupation of the person recorded. When agriculture is the subsidiary occupation, it has been tabulated in the fourth and fifth columns of the composite columns of Imperial Table XV-A, Parts I and II. When agriculture is the principal occupation, subsidiary

Agriculturalists with subsidiary occupations,					
		Males.	Females.	Total.	
Rent Receivers	•••	7,470	6,418	13,888	
Cultivators	•••	170,219 45.922	104,491 26,915	274,710	
Labourers	•••	45.922	26,915	72,837	
Total	•••	223,611	137,824	361,435	

occupations have been tabulated in Table XV-B. The distribution of these two classes of dual occupations has been reduced to proportions in Subsidiary Tables

IV and V. The actual numbers of agriculturalists with subsidiary occupations is given in the first marginal statement. It is probable that the numbers are very largely under-recorded. The suggestion that only 5 or per cent. of the cultivators of the province are engaged in subsidiary non-agricultural occupations, is conclusive proof

Percentage of agric	culturalists wit	h subsidiary o	ccupations.		
Group.  Subsidiary   Subsidiary   non-agricultural.   Total, cultural.					
Rent Receivers Cultivators Labourers	3'79 3'03 1'26	6.03 2.01 6.43	10'77 8'04 7'98		

that the figures are in error, to any one acquainted with the village life of the province. As the figures are obviously defective a detailed analysis would be of but little

Sub-class,	Designation.	Percentage of workers with agri- culture as subsidiary occupation,	:
1	Exploitation of the	: 4	1
	surface of the earth		1
11	Extraction of miner als.	-! 1'5	;
111	Industry		
l IV	Transport	5'4	:
V	Trade	. દું દે	1
VI	Public force	. Ġ·6	
VII	Public Administra- tion.	- 135	ł
VIII	Profession and Liberal Arts.	2'9	
l IX	Independent	. 30	+
X	Domestic		1
XI	Insufficiently, des	3.1	
. хи	Unproductive	1.3	1

value. As to the workers of non-agricultural occupations following agriculture as a subsidiary occupation the actual numbers for each Class and Sub-class are given at the head of Imperial Table XV-A.1 in columns 32 and 33. It is probable that the degree of under-estimation is almost as great as it is in the case of the subsidiary occupations of agriculturalists.

369. Growers of special products. Rubber.—The figures in group 5 are principally concerned with the persons occupied in the industry of rubber plantation. The industry is still in its infancy there being only 10 plantations returned as employing over 20 persons. They are situated in the Mergui, Amherst, Hanthawaddy and Toungoo Districts. In many respects the numbers are

greatly underestimated, there being numerous plantations in course of preparation in various stages of clearing and planting, the workers of which have been included in less specified occupations, in the ordinary census, and have been omitted entirely from the special industrial return. Although the greater portion of Burma is not

Ordinary Census 4,037
Special Industrial 4,047
Census.

included in the zone generally regarded as most suitable for rubber plantation, and although the period of dry weather between the rainy seasons is rather prolonged, experience has proved that these are not necessarily insuperable handicaps to the progress of the industry. The amount of dew in the dry season is so abnormally heavy, as to compensate in some measure for the absence of rainfall. Another factor

in favour of the advance of the industry is the amount of land available. As rubber can be grown on land unsuited for the cultivation of paddy, the staple crop of the province, there is a large area of unappropriated land suitable for rubber cultivation, without interference with any established crops. It is difficult to state, at this stage of the industry, the extent to which it will attract Indian labour or absorb the energies of the indigenous population. At present the tendencies are towards the utilisation of Indian labour, but the industry is not sufficiently advanced for an estimate to be made of the respective shares which indigenous and immigrant labour will take in its development.

There has been a large decline of 147,017 (from 385,528 in 1901 to 232,294 in 1911) in the number of persons in Group 6, which comprises persons concerned in the growth of fruit, flower, vegetable, betel, vine, areca nut and other similar vegetable products, and market gardeners. The decline is due to the fact that gardening and the growing of vegetable products is an occupation usually carried on jointly with ordinary cultivation, and it is generally a matter of indifference to a person engaged in such dual or mixed occupation, under which designation he is returned. The rather detailed instructions given at the present census regarding the entries of ordinary cultivators seem to have acted in predisposing enumerator to enter such persons as cultivators rather than as gardeners.

370. Forestry.—Sub-order I(c), Forestry, comprises two groups, the administrative officers connected with the care and control of the forests of the

Population supported by industries connected with the raising of farm stock.						
Occupation group	1911.	1901.	Increase.			
Cattle and buffalo breeders.	2,615	5.900	- 3,255			
Sheep, goat and pig breeders.	12,232	3,103	+ 8,829			
Breeders of other	35	473	- 438			
Herdsmen, etc.	91,032	57,751	+ 33,281			
Total	105,944	67,527	+ 38,417			

care and control of the forests of the province, and the persons who are engaged in the working of forests and the collection of forest produce. The numbers, 5,116 officials and 37,649 forest workers, are moderate and probable advances on the corresponding figures for 1901.

371. Raising of farm stock.— The raising of farm stock provides employment supporting 105,944 persons, or 88 per cent. of the population

of the province. The comparison of the relative numbers in 1901 and 1911 is not to

be relied on, as in 1901 dealers as well as breeders were grouped jointly. The separation now effected for the purpose of comparison is artificial. This raising of stock

is one of the branches of agriculture where the Indian immigrant takes a more than proportionate share of the employment. Hindus and Mahomedans form about 10 per cent. of the population concerned in this industry. In the particular branch of cattle and buffalo breeding, the Hindus with 37.5 per cent. almost rival the Buddhists with 40.6 per cent. of the total population concerned. In making this comparison however it must be remembered that the Hindus engage in it as a whole-time occupation and are therefore fully recorded whereas

Religious classif with r	icatio aising	n of populatio g of farm stoc	n concerned k.	
Religion.		Raising of Farm stock.	Cattle and buffalo breeders.  Percentage.	
		Percentage.		
Buddhist Animist Hindu Mahomedan Christian		84°7 4°2 5°5 4°4	40.6 17.5 37.5 3.5	

the Buddhists engage in the occupation of stockbreeding in conjunction with ordinary cultivation, and are therefore only occasionally recorded, when stockbreeding assumes large proportions of the total activity of the persons enumerated.

372. General review of agricultural occupations.—The space given to a consideration of the groups of the first order of occupations may seem to be unduly great. But although the occupations included in the head "Pasture and Agriculture" may form but one order only out of 55, and 13 groups only out of 169, the population concerned is over 70 per cent. of the total population of the The remaining industries are almost entirely dependent on agriculture "Transport" is little more than the collection of agricultural for their welfare. produce and the distribution of general requirements to agriculturalists. "Industry" is largely the conversion of agricultural produce for export or use, or the preparation of the requirements of the agricultural population. Similarly, "Trade" is vitally dependent on agriculture, advancing with its advance, and sharing its vicissitudes. In the undeveloped condition of the mineral resources of the province, agriculture is the only extensive primary industry. The remaining industries are subsidiary, and dependent for their existence on its general prosperity.

It has therefore been necessary to discuss at some length the condition of the industry so vital to the province, especially as the interval since the last census has seen such a remarkable change in its rate of progress. The change is not specially manifest in the occupational statistics, the increase of 1,522,032 persons or 22 per cent. in the population dependent on agriculture in ten years appearing to shew a healthy rate of increase. It is obscured partly by the fact that the change of conditions did not commence to operate till the latter half of the past decade, partly by the extended census area

Pastoral and Agricultural Population.						
1911	8,472,391 6,950,359					
Increase	1,522,032					
Per cent	23					

over which statistics have been compiled, and partly by changes in the principles of classification and in the method of application of those principles. But the retardation of the rate of agricultural advance has manifested itself in other directions. The rate of increase for the whole population has slackened, migration has declined, the Port of Rangoon has failed to maintain its previous rate of increase, and the marked decline in the rapidity of agricultural expansion has been a commonplace of the revenue and financial administration of the province for the past ten years. The general economic conclusions have already been indicated in paragraph 364, dealing with the numbers of cultivating owners and tenants. The rapid extension of cultivation involved the creation of landlord and tenant classes to a greater extent than existed in the more settled portions of the province. The administrative measures taken to check the transfer of newly extended land to non-agriculturalists succeeded in their object. But, synchronising, as they did, with the period when the rate of extension must necessarily decline owing to the appropriation of all the easily culturable waste land of the delta districts, and with a contraction of credit following the land boom of the early years of the century, they were followed by a marked retardation of the agricultural expansion of the province.

#### NON-AGRICULTURAL OCCUPATIONS.

373. Fishing.—Allied with agriculture in the first sub-class of occupations by the fact that they are concerned with the exploitation of the surface of the earth, are the two industries of fishing and hunting. These two groups combined form the second order of occupations, and associated with "Pasture and Agriculture" comprise the first of the 12 sub-classes of occupations. Hunting is the professional occupation of but a small number of the population, but fishing plays a considerable part in the industries of the province, supporting a population of 151,601 persons or 126 per cent, of its inhabitants. The majority of the fishermen are engaged in the inland fisheries of the province. During the rains large tracts of land are flooded and become the spawning ground of the fish from the creeks and rivers. With the fall of the waters all means of egress from the flooded areas are screened off and the return of the fish to the creeks and rivers prevented. As the fall of the water becomes more pronounced the fish endeavour to retreat to deep water from the rapidly drying swamps. In doing this they pass through false openings prepared in the screens, leading to traps, and are then secured. Some fisheries provide by this method a daily take of fish for several months. Fishing operations usually commence in October and last till February or March. At the time of the census, fishery work had slackened off considerably, and most of its hired labourers were engaged in other occupations.

oil produced is a separate industry located in the City of Rangoon and the Hanthawaddy District. It will be subsequently considered in connection with the purely industrial occupations of the province.

376. Extraction of Metals.—The industrial returns shew 3,682 persons engaged in the extraction of metals. Tin is obtained principally in Mergui where

it is worked by small Chinese contractors. Wolfram is an infant industry. Large quantities have been found in the Tavoy District and there are numerous small companies. commencing to work at the extraction of this metal. Silver and lead are being obtained in the Northern Shan The principal source of income at present is obtained by the smelting by modern methods of the refuse slag left by previous Chinese workers, after the crude extraction of what metal they could obtain by primitive methods.

Extraction of Metals (Actual Workers).					
Tin and Wolfram Silver and Lead Galena	1,735 1,845 102				
Total	3,682				

Still continuing to accept the returns of the Special Industrial Census in preference to those of the ordinary enumeration, there are 4,125 workers engaged in the extraction of non-metallic minerals. The extraction of rubies is effected by a company which has practically a monopoly, but under an old law women are permitted to search for rubies under restricted conditions. The jade mines are situated outside administered territory and do not come within the ordinary census area.

Extraction of non-metallic Minerals.					
Class.	Number of Workers.				
Ruby Mines Jade Mines Stone Quarry	1,393 1,136 1,596				
Total .	4,125				

377. Preparation and Supply of Material Substances.—The second great class of industries is that concerned with the preparation and supply of material substances. It is divided into three sub-classes, 36 orders, and 118 groups of occupations as indicated in the statement below:-

	Sul-Class.				Population supported.	
Class B.	No.	Designation.	Orders. Groups.	1911.	1901.	
Preparation and supply of material substances.	III IV V	Industry Transport Trade	VI to XIX XX to XXIII XXIV to XLI	21 to 93 94 to 105 106 to 138	806,431 393,652 1,203,721	1,028,022 259,053 1,010,081
Total	•••		••••		2,403,804	2,297,156

Industry and transport combined support nearly one-tenth of the population. and trade supports another tenth, the three sub-classes together supporting 19'97

per cent. of the inhabitants of the province. The actual workers engaged in the preparation and supply of material substances comprise 11.47 per cent. of the total population, distributed between Industry, Transport and Trade in the percentages of 3'90, 1'88 and 5'69 of the population respectively. Compared with the corresponding figures for Pasture and Agriculture, supporting 70.37 per cent. of the population, it is seen that the occupations of this class of industries support but a small proportion of the people.

Proportions of Total Population.						
Preparation and	Percentage of					
supply of material substances.	Persons supported.	Actual workers.				
Industry Transport Trade	6.40 3,54 10,00	3.30 1.88 2.69				
Total	19'97	11'47				

An important feature of the employments concerned with the preparation and supply of material substances is the comparatively high proportion of Indians engaged. Owing to the absence

of an analysis of occupations by race it is necessary to use the figures of Imperial Table XVD for Occupation by Religions for the purpose. These are reduced proportions in Subsidiary Tables VIII and IX appended to this Chapter. Whereas in the industries of Class A, concerned

Percentage of Population supported by occupations in Class B.					
Religion.		Total.	Industry.	Transport.	Trade,
Buddhist Animist Hindu Mahomedan Christian Others		6.2 6.2 6.2 83.1	84·6 2·6 7·3 4·9 ·6	72.2 1.9 13.7 9.7 2.0	85.7 3.5 3.6 6.5 6.

the distinction was not even attempted, and the figures for that year have been calculated as far as possible by artificially separating the combined figures then Attempts have been made to trace the causes of the discrepancies by disregarding entirely the grouping introduced by the two distinct schemes of classification, and comparing the numbers returned at the two enumerations under the various vernacular terms employed. This however was nullified by the fact that the list of the vernacular terms of the occupations returned in the records in 1901, printed on pages 92 to 109 of the Appendix to the Administrative Volume of the Census Report for that year, is defective, there being no vernacular terms given for about one half of the occupational groups, even when persons are shewn

as being returned in such groups.

But quite apart from the impossibility of clearly distinguishing between "Industry" and "Trade" in the majority of the non-agricultural occupations of the province, there is the further source of discrepancy in the fact that many of such occupations are subsidiary to agriculture, and carried on either by subordinate members of the agricultural household, or by agriculturalists themselves in their off season. Although in Burma there is a high degree of industrial specialization as to locality, there is no such specialization with respect to the industry itself. The cotton and silk spinner and weaver is usually a female member of an agricultural family, herself assisting in cultivation at busy periods. The dyer may be entered either as a cloth-seller or as a cultivator, as he probably follows one or other of these occupations. He probably dyes both raw materials and fabrics and so may be entered either in groups 30 or in group 71. The list of dual occupations might be indefinitely extended. Seeing that there are so many causes of discrepancy, that the classifications of 1901 and 1911 have proceeded on different lines, that in the absence of the vernacular terms recorded in 1901 any reconstruction of the former is artificial, and also that the occupations under the head of "Industry" are mixed occupations in that they are universally carried on jointly with the corresponding occupations, under the head of trade, and dual occupations, in that they are usually carried on alternatively with agriculture, no advantage will accrue from a detailed examination of the respective figures for the two years of enumeration. Agriculture has loomed larger in minds of the people and it has generally been given the preference in the case of dual occupations. Except in one or two instances it may be assumed that the decline in the numbers of person supported by "Industry" is apparent only, and due to the impossibility of instituting an effective and reliable comparison with the figures for 1901.

379. Oil Refinery.—A considerable industry has arisen in connection with the disposal of the petroleum extracted from the various oil fields of the province. This industry is controlled by three companies, the Burma Oil Company, the Indo-Burma Petroleum Company, and the British-Burma Petroleum Company. It is located in the City of Rangoon and the Hanthawaddy District. The Burma Oil Company has a pipe line from the oil fields to their refineries, but the other

companies depend on specially constructed oil-barges for their transport. is the same discrepancy in the number of workers returned in the ordinary census returns and in the returns of the special industrial census. This is due to returns of the special industrial census. the large and varied number of occupations, such as engineering, tinning and general labour, included in the operations of oil refining. It is a matter of extreme

Census, difficulty, which instructions do not appear to remove, to get both the operation

Ordinary Census Special Industrial

Workers in Oil refining \_ Industry.

5,583

performed and the general industry for which it was performed, entered in the enumeration schedule. Consequently, but a portion of the persons occupied in the industry are specifically returned as engaged in oil refining operations. remainder are to be found in other groups, principally those devoted to insufficiently defined occupations. The importance of the industry to the locality in which it has settled is to be seen from the fact that it employs over ten thousand workers. It exemplifies in a striking manner the dependence of Burma on immigrant labour

Religious distributi lation supported by	on of popu- oil refining.
Religion.	Per cent.
Buddhist	12.8
Hindu Mahomedan	59°5
Christian	•6

for its large associated industries. The indigenous Burmese form only 15.8 per cent. of the population supported, 83.6 per cent. being Indians (59.5 per cent. Hindus and 24'1 per cent. Mahomedans).

380. Textile Industries.—The decline in the number of persons supported by cotton weaving, noticed in the Report for 1901, has continued with accelerated

Population supported by Textile Industries.					
Grange	Occupation.	1911.	1301.		
23	Cetton spinning, sizing and weaving.	132,737	243,670		
27	Silk spinners and weavers.	18,621	34,104		

rapidity. Mr. Lowis commented on the difficulty of drawing the line between the weaver who weaves for a living and the weaver who produces nothing more than a sufficiency of coarse cloth for home consumption. The line is so shadowy and indefinite that considerable divergencies in the returns for succeeding enumerations

must be anticipated. In order to introduce a more specific line of demarcation between persons who are really occupied in an industrial sense and those who are simply preparing articles for household use, the criterion of the receipt of wages was introduced. The result is not very fortunate. It eliminated the class of weavers, who, without having an extensive industrial connection, spin or weave and barter their produce with their neighbours. But the large decline in the numbers recorded is much greater than can be explained either by the indeterminate nature of the line of demarcation between industrial and household industry, or by the fixation of the line of demarcation at too high a level. The figures, however, disturbed and distorted they may be by differences of record and differences of classification, are a reflection of the actual decline in the textile industries of the

See distribution of Te	xtile Worl	ters.
Group.	Males.	Females.
Cotton ginning, clean-	373	
Cetten spinning, sizing and weaving.	5,219	91,766
Rope, twins and string	418	379
Other fibres (coccanut, aloes, etc.).	10	+
Wool carders and spianers.	23	1
Silk spinners and	3,047	10,616
weavers. Dyeing, Meaching, printing, etc.	28	4
Other (lace, crepe, embroulerses, ctc.).	5	32
T. tal	9,123	103,316

The industries of spinning and province. weaving both silk and cotton, are domestic industries generally performed by the younger females of the household. The great majority of weavers and spinners are members of agricultural families, though in some localities the industries are sufficiently established to furnish full time occupation for a comparative large proportion of the population. agricultural expansion of the past thirty years has tended to affect the textile industries adversely in two directions. On the one hand, the large extension of cultivation, simultaneously with advancing prices, has made the population as a whole much less dependent than formerly on the produce of such domestic industries. On the other hand, in order to balance the enormous and advancing exports of paddy from the province, articles of European manufacture (largely textiles) have

## 381. Religious distribution of Industrial Population.—The religious

		Percentage of population.						
Group.	Occupation.	Buddhist.	Animist.	Hindu.	Mahom- medan.	Christian.	Others.	
22 53 56 59 6) 71 72 78 93	Cotton ginning, etc Oil refining Rice pounders and huskers Butchers Shoe, boot and sandal makers Washing, cleaning and dyeing Barbers Bricklayers, etc Industries connected with refuse	25'6 15'8 77'1 64'8 77'8 52'0 3'8 75'1 39'3	 1.4 8.1 1.1 3.9 .7	60°3 59'5 12'7 2'2 11'9 39'3 54'5 9'5	13'7 24'1 8'3 30'0 1'8 6'9 36'9 14'4 7'4	6 *5 1*5 *3 *7 *5 *1	      	
	Industry generally	84.6	2.6	7'3	4'9	•6		

composition of the industrial population affords some indication of the nature of the demand by Burma for Indian labour. The above statement gives nine industrial groups in each of which the proportions of

industrial groups in each of which the proportions of Indians; i.e., Hindus, Mahomedans and the members of the other religions, is considerably greater than the general proportion they bear to the total population. The same fact can be presented in another manner. Whereas only 6.70 per cent. of the population of the province is supported by industrial occupations, 15.12 per cent. of the Hindu population and 9.34 per cent. of the Mahomedan population are so supported. Thus the Indian population is dependent on industrial occupations to

Population supported by Industry.			
	Percentage of total.		
Province Hindu Maho- medan.	6'70 15'12 9'34		

Indian population is dependent on industrial occupations to a much higher degree than the general population of the province.

382. Transport.—The transport industries form the fourth of the 12 subclasses of occupations. They have been divided into four orders; transport by water, transport by road, transport by rail, and the Post Office, Telegraph and Telephone services. These have been further subdivided into 12 groups, details for which will be found in the various sections of Imperial Table XV. The following statement gives the general scheme of classification for the transport of industries and the distribution of the population they support:—

Sub-Clava IV.	IV. Order. Groups.				Population	supported.
Sub-Ciass IV.			Groups.	1911.	1901.	
Transport	ransport { XX   Transport by water     XXI   Transport by read     XXII   Transport by rail     XXIII   Pest Office, Telegraph   and   Telephone services.		94—97 98—103 103 & 104 105	131,071 230,168 27,686 4,727	113,951 128,215 12,033 4,854	
		Total			393,652	259,053

Despite the increases of 15, 80 and 120 per cent. in the population supported by transport by water, road and rail respectively, it is probable that vagueness of

entry has been responsible for a considerable under-estimate of the persons employed in the transport industries. It is true that they are less liable to the disturbances produced by dual and mixed employments than the workers in industrial occupations, but a comparison of the census figures with those of the returns of the persons employed on

	Percentage of Indian to	Tota	l Populatio	n.
Order.			Hindu.	Mahomedan
20 21 22	Transport by water Transport by road Transport by rail		5'5 12'7 57'8	15'2 6'0 14'3
23	Post, Telegraph, etc.  Transport generally	•••	32.8	9.7

the railway and in the Postal and Telegraph Departments indicates that the groups of unspecified occupations must contain a considerable number of workers who should have been shewn as transport employés. As regards the participation of Indian labour in transport occupations, the actual numbers of Hindus and Mahomedans they support is not quite so great as in the purely industrial occupations. But they form much higher proportions of the total population

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supported. Whereas Hindus and Mahomedans form 12'2 (7'3+4'9) per cent. of

Postal and Telegraph Services (Actual workers).					
	Postal De- partment.	Telegraph Department.	Total.		
Special Indus-}	2,892	2,307	5,199		
Ordinary }	•••		2,465		

Post Offices.					
	Europeans and Anglo-Indians.	Indians and Burmans.			
Post offices Combined Post and Telegraph offices,	45 2	2,579 266			
Total	47	2,845			

Postal Department, and in the clerical, skilled, unskilled and subordinate branches of the Telegraph Department. Taking the Departmental returns, the second marginal statement gives the numbers of

Worken	s in Telegraph De	partment.	
Branches.	Europeans and Anglo-Indians.	Indians and Burmans.	Total.
Administrative Signalling Clerks Skilled labour Unskilled labour Messengers, etc.	18 311 7 	-‡ 20 78 36.‡ 1,049 456	22 331 85 364 1,049 456
Total	336	1,971	2,307

the industrial population, they form 23.4 (13.7+9.7) per cent. of the population supported by transport occupations.

383. Postal and Telegraph Workers.—The Special Departmental returns demonstrate the general unreliability of the ordinary census returns as to the numbers following each occupation. This is obvious in the returns for postal and telegraph workers. The difference is principally due to the lack of detailed description of such persons as are included in the clerical and road establishments of the

inal statement gives the numbers of workers of different classes in the Postal Department. In the Telegraph Department, there is a much higher proportion of European and Anglo-Indian labour. This is due to the signalling department which is almost exclusively manned by European and Anglo-Indian signallers. Full details of the nature of the labour in each of the six branches of the Telegraph Depart-

ment are to be found in Subsidiary Table X(b) of this Chapter. From the ordinary census records it is seen that these departments are manned to a great extent by Indian labour, Hindus and Mahomedans forming 43.5 (32.8+10.7) per cent. of the population supported by the employment given.

### 384. Railway Workers.—

		Special return	ns of Railway	workers.			
	Directly o	mployed.	Indirectly	employed.		Total.	
Department.	Europeans and Anglo- Indians.	Indians and Burmans.	Europeans and Anglo- Indians.	Indians and Burmans.	Europeans and Anglo- Indians.	Indians and Burmans.	Total.
Agency Traffic Locomotive, Carriag and Wagon.	16 279 336	44 3,620 5,832	***	 2,644 197	16 279 336	44 6,264 6,029	60 6,543 6,365
Audit Stores Medical Engineering	13 6 11 104	314 53 157 8,534		342  5,690	13 6 11 122	314 395 157 14,224	327 401 168 14,346
Total	765	18,554	18	8,873	783	27,127	28,210

The above return gives the number of workers directly and indirectly employed in the construction and management of the railways of the province.

<u></u>	Census re	turns of Railway Workers.	
Order.	Group.	Occupation.	Number of Workers
	103	Railway workers other than construction coolies.	15,368
	tot	Construction coolies	3,01.4
22		Transport by rail	18,382

The census returns shew only 18,382 workers, which does not widely differ from the total number of persons actually employed by the railway company directly. The difference between the numbers entered in the special return and those entered in the ordinary census returns represents vague entries of occupations in the ordinary census schedules especially among indirectly employed workers.

385. Trade.—The last of the sub-classes comprised within the main class of industries concerned with the preparation and supply of material substances, and the fifth sub-class in the general scheme, is the combination of all the industries of exchange under the general term "Trade". There are 18 orders and 33 groups of occupations included in this division as detailed in the following statement:—

Sub-Class.		Order.	Groups.	Population supported.		
Duo-Olass.	Number.	Designation.		1911.	1901.	
	- XXIV	Banks, establishments of credit exchange and insurance.	106	17,345	8,929	
	XXV	Brokerage, commission and export.	107	21,415	27,161	
	XXVI	Trade in textiles	108	74,875	45,450	
	XXVII	Trade in skins, leathers and	100	1,481	190	
	2222 V 11	furs.	109	2,40-	190	
	XXVIII	Trade in wood	110	21,088	30,620	
	XXIX	Trade in metals	111	1,644	1,339	
	XXX	Trade in pottery	112	10,386	6,963	
	XXXI	Trade in chemical products	113	2,903	6,473	
V. Trade	XXXII	Hotels, cafès, restaurants, etc.		21,651	20,691	
v. 1 rade	HIXXX	Other trade in food stuffs	116 to 124	513,911	451,914	
	VIXXX	Trade in clothing and toilet articles.	125	6,531	8,183	
	XXXV	Trade in furniture	126 & 127	13,496	7,158	
	XXXVI	Trade in building materials.	128	3,057	4,942	
	IIVXXX	Trade in means of transport	129	15,661	26,223	
	HIVXXX	Trade in fuel	130	10,753	4,466	
	XXXIX	Trade in articles of luxury and those pertaining to Literature and the Arts and Sciences.	131 to 133	10,961	19,684	
	XL	Trade in refuse matter	134	94		
	XLI		135 to 138	455,569	339,686	
,		Total	••,	1,203,721	1,010,081	

A comparison of the populations supported in 1901 and 1911 respectively by the several orders of occupations comprised in the general designation "Trade" is open to all the objections urged against the validity of such a comparison in the case of "Industry". The occupations are inextricably mixed with those grouped under the designation "Industry", they are in many cases pursued in conjunction with other occupations which might be alternatively returned, they are the result of the translation of vague vernacular terms which in many instances do not permit of precise classification, and the scheme of classification adopted in 1901 does not permit of a real comparison with the records of 1911. Unfortunately, a complete list of the vernacular terms returned in the Census of 1901 is not available, but those that have been published in pages 92 to 109 of the Administrative Volume for that year indicate many points of divergence in the precise meaning given to the terms used in the course of tabulation following the two enumerations. In 1901, the persons recorded under the very general term ze the (bazaar seller) were entered in group 106, a group reserved entirely for the sellers of miscellaneous vegetable products. Such terms as "Brokerage, commission, and export" Order XXV, vague as they are in their English connotation, have much more indefinite meanings in the vernacular. The persons returned in Order XLI have been a source of considerable difficulty, and the returns have been examined several times with a view to allotting as many as possible to definite groups. All entries which could possibly be transferred from the group of Order XLI, without an undue exercise of the imagination, have been placed into more appropriate occupational orders. The fact that even after such transference 455,569 persons out of a total of 1,203,721 cannot be definitely classified, renders a detailed examination of the figures for each order of little value.

386. The Miscellaneous Store.—It is somewhat to be regretted that room was not found in the general scheme of classification for a special group to comprise the general store or kôn sốn saing to be found in most of the large villages, and in every small town in Burma. The following quotation—from

paragraph 311 of the Census Report for India for 1901 shows that this class of shop is not peculiar to this province:—

"There are moreover certain recognised shops which have no corresponding equivalent in English, such as that known in Bengal as a manohári dokán. In 1891 the keepers of such shops appear to have been treated as stationers; but although stationery is sold, this is by no means the only, or indeed the most important, class of goods dealt in; amougst other articles, may be mentioned clocks, glass, glass bangles, looking-glasses, enamelled plates, toys biscuits, stockings, handkerchiefs, shoes, brushes, woollen goods, tobacco, soap, perfumery, tin boxes, walking-sticks, and hukhas; and at the present census they have been classed as general dealers in the Imperial Table."

Unfortunately there is no group of general dealers in the current scheme of classification. The Burmese general store is even more catholic in its articles of merchandise than the manohari dokan of Bengal. It deals in articles which would separately bring it under occupational groups 112 (Trade in pottery), 113 (Trade in chemical products), 114 (Trade in ærated waters), 116, 117, 119, 120, 121 (various trades in food stuffs), 125 (Trade in clothing and toilet articles), 127 (Trade in crockery, glassware, bottles, etc.), 132 (dealers in common bangles, bead necklaces, fans, small articles, toys, etc.), and 133 (booksellers, stationers, etc.). It is not suggested that each separate miscellaneous store deals in all the articles in all the groups herein mentioned. But each store would deal in the majority of them, and the aggregate of stores included in the term kôn sôn saing in a small locality would include among the goods for sale articles which are the subject matter of all the groups mentioned above.

In the census of 1891, persons entering themselves under this designation were classified in group 396 of the scheme then followed as "General Merchants".

Analysis of population su	pported by the occupa- keepers otherwise uns		d in Group		
Burmese Term.	English Term.	Population supported.			
Durinese Term.	Lugish Term.	Workers.	Dependents.		
Kôn zôn saing } Kôn zôn yaung }	Huckster	23,172	21,934		
Ze	Bazaar sellers	121,454	82,165		
Ze saing	Bazaar stall keeper.	8,327	5,140		
Kônthè	Trader	7,684	3,217		
Kôn yaung	Seller of goods	2,227	1,438		
Other terms		107,177	67,004		
	Total	270,041	180,898		

There is no such group in the present scheme, and indeed, even if there had been, it is doubtful if the keeper of a huckster's shop would have been entered under such a misleading term as "General Merchant v. Not being able to find a specific group under which this class of traders could be classed they were entered under Group 135 in the present scheme "Shopkeepers otherwise unspecified". An analysis has been made of the numbers

workers and dependents included in Group 135 as unspecified shop-keepers. The inclusion of the small general dealer may not perhaps be fully justified; as the class of trade carried on, though of a miscellaneous character, is definitely specified. This group is however more appropriate than any of the other groups of the scheme dealing with trades of a specific nature would have been, and any misconception caused by the grouping adopted is corrected by the marginal statement indicating the populations under each important section of Group 135.

- 387. Proportion of Indians in trading population.—The numbers of orders and groups in the trading population is too great for the presentation of the percentages of Hindus and Mahomedans among the trading population in a marginal statement. Subsidiary Tables VIII and IX give the necessary information for the orders and groups where the percentage is large. For the trading population in general Hindus number 3.6 and Mahomedans 6.5 per cent. respectively of the total. The Hindus have high percentages in groups 106 (Banking credit exchange and insurance), 107 (Brokerage commission and export), 118 (Sale of dairy produce), 119 (Sweetmeat sellers, etc.) and 124 (Dealers in hay, grass and fodder). The Mahomedans have a more generally high percentage distributed over most of the branches of the trade. The percentages of Hindus and Mahomedans supported by trade are 11.08 and 18.58 respectively, compared with 10 per cent. for the province generally.
- 388. Public Administration and Liberal Arts.—The third of the four main classes of occupations includes all which can be classed under the term "Public Administration and Liberal Arts." This class is divided into four

sub-classes (numbers VI to IX), ten orders and twenty-three groups as shown in the following statement:-

Class	Sulvatara	a y o y seeman de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company de la company d	Order.	Groups.	Population supported.	
	Elizir Carter	Number. Designation.		Groops.	1911.	1901.
	VI. Public Force.	XLII XLIII XLIV	Army Navy Police	139 & 140 141 1 42 & 143	24,984 28 54,483	16,619 791 36,591
Ç	VII. Public Adminis- tration,	XLV	Public Administra- tion.	144 to 147	103,108	138,169
Public Ad- ministration and Informa Arts.	VIII Pro-	XLVI XLVII XLVIII XLIX L	Religion Law Medicine Intraction Lucrature and the Arts and Sciences.	148 to 151 152 & 153 154 & 155 156 157 to 160	140,834 8,306 52,172 26,939 28,025	148,386 7,147 49,290 16,988 31,215
	IN. Persons living an their uncome.		l'erana living prin- cipally on their income.	161	6,967	7,285
ريا قد ود الأعداد الدو	the North Committee		Total	•••	445,846	452,481

The 455.896 persons supported by the occupations and professions of this

class comprise 3.7 per cent. of the total population. The "Public Force" and "Public Administration" support 60 and 86 per cent, of the population respectively Over one half of the 2112 per cent. supported by the "Professions and Liberal Arts" are allotted to order 46 "Religion", to which 1 to per cent, of the population belong. Law sup-

-		Sub-Clays	Population.			
-	Natular,	Occupation.	Actual.	Per cent.		
	VI VIII VIII	Public Force	79,495 103,108 250,276 6,967	.00 3.13 .80		
:	Clary C	Public Administration and Liberal Arts.	455,896	3:70		

ports but 7 persons out of every thousand of the population. Medicine with '44 per cent. supports approximately twice the population dependent on "Instruction". The population concerned with Literature and Science and Art comprises a miscellany of public scribes and stenographers, of architects, surveyors and engineers and their employes, of authors, photographers, artists, sculptors, astronomers, meteorologists, botanists, and astrologers, and of music composers and masters, players on all kinds of musical instruments, singers, actors and dancers. These are distributed into four groups (157 to 160) which may be briefly termed the clerical, the scientific, the artistic and the musical. The marginal statement shows the actual distribution of the population concerned among the four groups.

Otder.	Occupation,		Per cent.
46 47 48 49 50	Religion Law Medicine Instruction Letters, Arts Science.	and	1°16 0'7 '44 '23 '23
-gáspya-flyttar az azártápi.	Professions Liberal Arts.	and	3,13

Letters, Arts and Science.										
Group.	Group. Occupation.									
157 158 159 160	Clerical Scientific Artistic Musical .	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	1,866 3,998 5,666 16,495							
	Tota	1	28,025							

389. Buddhist Priest or Monk.—The authorised designations of occupational groups

148 and 149 are "Priests, ministers, etc." and "Religious mendicants, inmates of monasteries, etc." respectively. It was originally intended to follow the precedent of previous census classifications and include the members of the Buddhist religious orders under the second of these two groups. It has always been assumed that as the Buddhist pôngyi was professedly a religious mendicant, and also the inmate of a monastery there was a double reason for his inclusion in a group which specified two of his distinguishing characteristics. But neither "monk" nor "religious mendicant" nor "inmate of a monastery" is a sufficiently correct designation of the Buddhist pongyi to be accepted without question. Enquiries among a few Buddhists revealed the fact that there is not unanimity on the question, but that

the term "priest" seemed to be the most correct rendering. "Religious mendicant" places too much stress on what is after all only a method of remuneration for services rendered; and "Inmate of monastery" is but a passive criterion by which to determine the function of a class of such active and potent influence as the religious orders in Burma. Sir George Scott, in the following quotations from his standard work, describes the nature and position of the various orders, but appears to minimise the extent of their influence and functions:—

"In the Lord Buddha's time, when a man adopted the faith, the requisites were belief in his teaching, a willingness to live in poverty and chastity, and under strict rules. All the applicant had to do was to renounce the ordinary pursuits of life, give up all his goods, take the vows, and he was forthwith a member of the Then-ga. From that time forward he lived in poverty, was dependent upon alms for his food, and upon charity for a shelter for his head; he was a behkkhoo, a mendicant, and only those who were such were Buddhists. But as the believers increased, it was evident that all could not wholly adopt the religious life. Many had faith, but not faith enough to support them in the strict rule of the society and soon Buddhists became divided into the two classes of laymen who adopted and believed in the religious tenets, and the religious who abandoned the world entirely, and strove only to lead the higher life. Hence also rose the hierarchy of the order, which exists to a certain extent in Burma, though very far from approaching the completeness of the system of Thibet, where there is a pontifical court, an elective sacerdotal chief, and a college of superior Lamas. In this respect, however, Burman Buddhism is as much closer to the primitive order in polity as it is in exact observance of the ordinations of the Weenee. Theoretically, in the sacred assembly there are but three classes:

"The shin, the novice, who has put on the yellow robe without becoming a professed member of the order, and probably with no other desire than that of obtaining his 'humanity'.

These are called ko-yins, moung-shins, and a variety of other names.

"The oo-pyin-sin, those who, having lived a certain time in the monastery, have been formally admitted to the assembly with a prescribed ceremony, whereby the tittle of yahan is solemnly conferred. These are the pyit-shin, or religious.

"Finally, there is the pohn-ghee, the 'Great Glory,' who by virtue of prolonged stay—

ten years is the minimum—has proved his steadfastness and unflinching self-denial."

#### Also:-

"In his ordination, therefore, the pyin-sin takes upon himself no burden in the shape of a cure of souls. He is not a priest like the Christian minister, who undertakes to guide others to salvation. He has no trouble for his food; a pious and kindly population supplies him far beyond his requirements, and expects no service in return for this support. He has no sermons to prepare; it is not expected that he will preach the law, and when of his own accord he occasionally does give an exposition, it is not any feeble excogitation of his own but the thoughts and words of the Great Master himself, or of the highest and noblest of the men of old, that he delivers. His natural rest is never broken in upon by calls to administer consolation and comfort to the sick and the dying. Even his leisure is seldom interrupted to the present at the lost rites for the dead. He is not a minister of religion, and all he has to do is to seek his own deliverance and salvation. All that is compulsory on him is the observance of continence, poverty, and humility, with tenderness to all living things, abstraction from the world, and a strict observance of a number of moral precepts, all tending to inculcate these things."

But the difference between theory and practice is as great in Buddhism as in any other religion, and the mendicant practices of the members of the religious order are largely conventional only, as will be seen from the following extract from the same source:—

"Only the more austere abbots enforce the observance of the earlier asceticism. Certainly in the great majority of the kyoungs of Lower Burma there is a man, not a monk, called kappeeyadayaka, or supporter, who provides for them a much more delicate and better dressed meal than they would have if they ate of the miscellaneous conglomerate turned out of the alms-bowl. That indiscriminate mixture of rice, cooked and raw; peas, boiled and parched; fish, flesh, and fowl, curried and plain, usually wrapped separately, in plantain leaves; cocoanut cakes and cucumbers; mangoes and meat, is very seldom consumed in the larger towns at any rate, by any but the most rigidly austere. It is handed over to the little boys, the scholars of the community, or to any wanderers who may be sojourning in the kyoung, who eat as much of it as they can, and give the rest to the crows and pariah dogs. The abbot and the pyin-sin find a smoking hot breakfast ready prepared for them when they return from their merning's walk, and are ready to set to with healthy appetites."

Whatever the theoretical or conventional status of the pôngyi may be, it is obvious to that class such persons as religious mendicants is putting a strain on

the meaning of the term.

It is also certain that the abandonment of the world and the limitation of the obligations of a member of the Buddhist religious orders to the search for his own deliverance and salvation, though theoretically correct, are far removed from actual practice. In the following quotation from paragraph 46 of the Census Report for 1901 which is headed "Power of the Priesthood in Burma" the actual,

as apart from the theoretical, position of the priesthood is forcibly presented.

"It is easy to understand that the attempt to inaugurate any form of Buddhism that did not afford a full measure of regard for the priesthood, must, in Burma, have been fore-doomed to failure. The Upper Burma Gazetteer in the Chapter 'Religion and its Semblances' shows that there are few phenomena more striking than the prominent part taken by the pôngyis of Upper Burma in the political life of the past century. Their influence over the people on the one hand and the Government on the other is as great as that exercised by any priesthood whose doings have found a place in the annals of ecclesiastical polity. They have been described as holding the balance between the rulers and the ruled. So dominant a power were they in the land a score of years ago that when, with the annexation, the old order was changed and the priestly prestige was threatened by the new, which found no place for the monkish intermediary in its system, there were few more pertinacious and dogged opponents to the British rule in the new territory than the wearers of the yellow robe. Nor was it only in Upper Burma that the flame of revolt was fanned by the priesthood. In Tavoy, Tharrawaddy and Sandoway districts of the Lower Province, the pôngyis fomented disaffection in the early post-annexation days.

"All this active participation in things temporal is, as Sir George Scott points out, as little in keeping with the frigid precepts of the Great Law Giver as it would be with the residence of the Screen on the property of the Great Law Giver as it would be with the residence of the Screen on the property has been described as the property has a countered to the property that the residence of the Screen on the property and would not for a moment be contented to the property that the property of the Screen on the property and would not for a moment be contented to the property that the property is a screen of the property that the property is a screen of the property to the property that the property is a screen of the property that the property

"All this active participation in things temporal is, as Sir George Scott points out, as little in keeping with the frigid precepts of the Great Law Giver as it would be with the pacific teachings of the Sermon on the Mount, and would not for a moment be countenanced by the laity, but for the fact now largely recognised that the Buddhism of the people, whose spiritual guides the pongyis are, is of the lips only, and that inwardly in their hearts the bulk of them are still swayed by the ingrained tendencies of their Shamanistic forefathers,

in a word are at bottom, animists, pure and simple."

Here, in addition to the use of the term in the heading of the paragraph quoted, the term "Priesthood" is used three times and the adjective "priestly" once in the course of a short paragraph. The member of a priesthood whose influence over the people on the one hand and the government on the other was as great as could be found in the annals of ecclesiastical polity, may in theory have abstracted himself from the world, but in practice is a person who cannot be truly classed as a religious mendicant, nor as merely the inmate of a monastery. The correct position of the "Upyin sin" and the "pôngyi" needs some more active term of designation. "Priest" may be open to some objections, but it is the nearest and the most natural equivalent in the scheme of classification, for the entry of a class, who form in the words of Mr. Lowis the "spiritual guides" of the people, and who perform the functions of the spiritual and general education of the children of the Buddhist community.

390. Miscellaneous Occupations.—The fourth and last class of occupations includes all those which will not fit in with the three first main classes, and has therefore been given the designation "Miscellaneous." It comprises three orders, "Domestic Service", "Insufficiently described occupations" and those which are "Unproductive". Domestic Service is naturally differentiated from other industries in being concerned with the personal convenience of individuals rather than with the provision of utilities for the community generally. Insufficiently described occupations necessarily defy inclusion in any definite division of a logical scheme, and unproductive occupations are also of special type, needing special treatment in classification. There is no economic significance in the grouping of these three sub-classes together into one class. They are simply occupations, defying association with others in any scheme of grouping, which have been included together into one class of "Miscellaneous Occupations" in order to round off the scheme of classification adopted. The three sub-classes comprise five orders and nine groups as shown in the following statement:—

Class.	Sub-class.		Order.	Groups.	Population supported.		
Class.	Sub-class.	Number.	Number. Designation.		1911.	iya:	
	X. Domestic service.	LII	Domestic service	162 & 163	\$7.5	67,073	
D Miscella- neous.	XI. Insufficiently described occupations.	LIII	General terms which do not indicate a definite occupation.	164 to 167	÷15.535	416/130	
	XII. Unpro-	LIV	Inmates of Jails, Asylums and Hospitals.		త్వేసిక		
	ductive.	LV	Beggars, Vagrants, Prostitutes,	=17	efects.	3700000	
<del></del>				The state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the s	£2% 3		

391. Insufficiently described occupations.—Despite every attempt to allot to the appropriate groups occupations not sufficiently definite to be inserted

Groups	General terms.	Poju- lation.
:6‡	Manufacturers, basi-	10,852
165	Cashiers, account-	58,873
1(6	Mechanics	8,240
107	Labourers and work- men.	351,43

automatically in one or other of the divisions of the scheme of classification, there remains a population of 439,399 persons who could only be entered in one or other of the groups of order 53. These persons should be allotted amongst the occupations of sub-classes II to IV, 272., Extraction of Minerals, Industry and Transport. Sub-class V (Trade) has its own unspecified group (number 135), and consequently does not contribute many persons to the order of general unspecified occupations (number 53). Neither do sub-classes II and IV make large contributions to this order. It is to the purely industrial sub-class (number III) that the majority of the entries of unspecified

occupations of order 53 would be transferred if the requisite knowledge were available. The amount of disturbance can be seen by comparing the relative numbers of the two sub-classes concerned. Sub-class III contains 806,431 persons supported by industry. Sub-class XI contains 429,399 persons whose occupations, mostly industrial, have not been sufficiently defined for any determinate classification. It is obvious that the disturbance caused by the vagueness of the returns in the figures for the industrial population of the province amounts to a very high percentage of the whole. Despite careful and detailed instructions the number of such unspecified entries have increased rather than diminished since 1901.

302. General review of employment in Burma.—

agriculture, and the industries which thrive on agricultural prosperity, show the greatest actual advance. The second important conclusion is that the expansion of agriculture is almost entirely the result of indigenous labour. Burma is by no means a self-sufficing country economically. It is dependent on Indian labour to a considerable extent for its "Industry", its "Transport" and its "Trade", more especially for the large disciplined industries connected with transport, and those congregated in its cities and towns. But the Indian cultivator is not a necessity for its agricultural development. In a few districts in the vicinity of Rangoon, largely owing to the financial necessities of the Burmese land holders, and to the financing of extensions of cultivation by Indian capital, Indian cultivators have gained a footing; and in the same area, partly owing to the shortness and the uncertainty of the indigenous supply of field labour, the Indian field coolie has established a position. But for the province as a whole, the grasp of its agriculture by the Burmese and allied races is as firm as at the previous census enumeration. The province is now in a stage of transition. Its rate of agricultural expansion has declined below the exceptionally high rate which had come to be regarded as normal, and the community is in the act of adjusting itself to the changing condi-Other lines of advance, particularly in the directions of the development of the mineral resources of the province and the rubber industry, are being pursued. The oil industry has established itself, and promises, despite a decline in the yield of the principal oil field, to become an increasing factor in the industrial life of the The remaining mineral industries, though in a few cases the experimental stage has been passed, have yet to establish themselves as a permanent and important source of employment. The rubber industry, though still in its infancy, gives great promise for the future. The amount of waste land available for the growth of rubber is most extensive, being of a different nature from that required for the cultivation of paddy, and now that the first few initial plantations have been successful, rapid extensions of the area planted are being effected. Thus the decade closing with the census of 1911 coincides with an era of change in the industrial conditions of the province of Burma. It has witnessed the modification of a long continued expansion in one direction, and the first advances of progress in several other directions. Both movements are too recent for their permanent effects to be estimated. All that can be demonstrated at present are the nature of the changes, and the directions in which for the time being they are progressing.

# SUBSIDIARY TABLE I—General Distribution by Occupation.

-		·		Numb	er per 10,000 otal popula	Percentag	ge in each ub-class	- i	e of actual	tual Percentage of dependents to actual		
Class.	Sub-ciass.	Order.	Description.		Lition.	Actual	der of Depen-	workers	employed	worl	o actual kers	
		<b> </b>			ed. workers.	workers.	dents.	Cities.	In rural Areas,	In Cities.	In rural Areas.	
	1(4)	1(6)	1(t)	_ 2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
А,	1		All Industries Production of raw materials Exploitation of the surface of the earth	10,00 7,17 7,16	6 3,966	56 55 55	41 45 45	4	95 100 100	6s 8r 8o	80 81 81	
		1 1(3) 1(b)		7,03 6,71	4 3,704	55 55 57	45 45 43		100	82 105	S: Si	
		1(e) 1(d)	Forestry	3	5 19 3 53	51 66	46 34	I I	93 93	73	75 85 51	
		1(s)	Raising of small animals (birds, bees, si worms, etc.). Fishing and Hunting	12	6 63	50	50	16	54 99	45 65	75	
	11		Extraction of Minerals	,	3 7	57	43	·	100	170	74	
		3 4 5	Guarries in hard rocks Salt		7 4 3 3 3 1	65 53 44	35 47 56		100	100	53 90 127	
В,	111		Preparation and supply of material substantinustry		97 1,147 70 390	57 58	43 43	12	88 85	65 6r	75 74	
		6 7	Textiles Hides, skin and hard materials from the anii kingdom.	nai r:	93	73 47	27 53	7 59	93 41	98 98	39 139	
		8 9 10	Wood	:-	57 79 29 14 16 9	50 45 60 61	50 54 40	11 17 7	%3 93	103 105 41	101 118 63	
		13	analogous.	1.	9 5	52	39	24	83	39	67 80	
		13 14 15	Industries of dress and toilet Furniture Industries Building Industries Construction of means of transport		56 57 1 2 10 11	85 57	40 15 43	19 18 19	81 82 81	65 63 75	67 8 77	
<b>]</b> .		16 17 13	Production and transmission of Physical force	es	2	\$5 40	45 60 52	40 85 21	60 15	71 164 103	77 87 73 110	
		19	literature and the arts and sciences, Industries concerned with refuse matter	ł	11 7	63	37	31	69	46	64	
	V		Transport	3	7   188	57	43	13	87	41	79	
		25 21 21 23	Transport by water Transport by road Transport by rail Post office, Telegraph and Telephone services			57 56 66 52	43 44 34 43	10 8 21 22	81 93 79 75	23 62 57 99	85 79 49 90	
	v		Trade	1,00		57	43	8	92	8x	75	
		24	Banks, establishments of credit exchange a Insurance.  Brokerage, commission and export	- 1	8 8	52	48	36	83 64	.138	151	
		36 37 33	Trade in Textile Trade in skin, leather and furs Trade in wood		52 36 1 1 13 9	5) 44 48	41 56 52	11	89	77 124	70	
	1	30	Trade in metals	:	9 5	59 63	41 42 51	, 25 15	75 85 99	59 64 33	70 63	
		32	Trade in Chemical products Hotels, cafes, restaurants, etc Other trade in food stuffs		2 1 8 11 27 235	59 55	51 41 45	5 21 9	95 79 91	39 68 66 85	70 81	
		34	Trade in clothing and toilet articles Trade in furniture	<b>:</b> ::	ο 3 1 7	52 53	47	12 7	58 93	60 143 84	7 t 66	
		35 37 33	Trade in building materials Trade in means of transport Trade in fuel	::   '	3 2 3 7 9 4	55 55	33 45 45	3 6 14	97 94 85	143 91	45 78 79	
		39 42	Trade in articles of luxury and those pertains to letters and the arts and sciences.  Trade in refuse matter		2 4	35	51 65	39 82	61	63	116 750	
	!	1 4	Trade of other sorts	37	3   226	63	, 4 <u>9</u>	4	56	57 81	- 267	
C.	vi	-	Public administration and Liberal Arts Public Force		9 191 5 35	51 53	48 47	12 19 31	58 18	64 46 27	95 100 26	
معدسة فارتاد بيويدا		44	Namy Points			39	61 53	100	90	145 05	142	
AND A STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE STATE OF THE	vii	45	(Public administration	8	5 38	37	62	17	83	301	164	
	viti		Professions and Liberal Arts		. 1	:5	41	8	93	89	76	
ļ	1	47	Henry 4 cm mm mm mm mm mm mm mm mm mm mm mm mm		75 75 3	31	35 61 52	7 11 8	91 87 93	47 234 124	37 141 106	
New York and	\$	33	fasting and Arts and Sciences	] 1		47	53 53	13	91 87	151 110	110	
	ix	13	Versions Urlay on their lacome	 	<b>6</b> 3	38	6,	19	250		140	
D.	x	11	Marelinania Banesia servita	***		6. 69	31	; 18 : 35	61	4° 33	65 53	
Annah Kana	X:	13	Tas calcinety described occupiation	. 13	7 214	6,	49	: 10	2.	49	10	
i.	x::		Capead waters		2	. 75	4.6	14	ė.	24	35	
	:	::	الميدو کارد که در دارده یو دیر که دو که که کارده یو در که دو در که در در در که در که در که در که در که در که د در در در که کارد که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که در که		7 1 7	75	33	33	61 i	39	11	

# Subsidiary Table II.—Distribution by Occupation in Natural Divisions.

.			Numl	oer per mille o	of Total Popul	ation support	ed in
Sub- class.	Order.	Description.	Central Basin.	Deltaic Plains.	Northern Hill Districts.	Coast Ranges.	Specially Administered Territories.
1(a)	1(p)	1(c)	2	3	4	5	б
I	•••	Exploitation of the surface of the earth.	687	713	725	758	763
	ı	Pasture and Agriculture	679	696	711	736	759
	I(a)	Ordinary cultivation	658	662	67.4	706	700
	r (b)	Growers of special products and market gardening.	9	22	23	20	12
	1(c)	Forestry	3	5	6	2	2
	1 (d)	Raising of Farm Stock	9	7	9	8	15
	1(e)	Raising of small animals (birds, bees, silkworm, etc.).		•••			•••
	2	Fishing and Hunting	8	17	14	22	4
11		Extraction of Minerals	I	***	6	2	r
111		Industry	85	59	42	55	6.4
	8	Wood	19	16	15	15	8
	9	Metals	3	3	r	3	2
	12	Food Industries	21	13	8	11	9
	13	Industries of dress and the toilet.	12	10	9	7	6
IV	•••	Transport	35	34	40	31	21
v	•••	Trade	99	114	92	78	86
	32	Hotels, Cafes, Restaurants, etc.	2	<b>3</b> 2	2	ı	2
	33	Other Trade in Food Stuffs	45	46	39	33	38
	41	Trade of other sorts	32	51	30	31	27
VI		Public Force	8	5	16	5	5
VII		Public administration	8	9	Io	7	10
VIII		Professions and liberal arts	25	19	24	17	22
ıx		Persons living on their income.		ı		1	
x		Domestic Service	6	9	7	6	5
XI		Insufficiently described occupations.	41	35	36	38	21
XII		Unproductive	4	2	2	, , ,	2
<u></u>	_}	1	<del></del>		-		1

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE III.—Distribution of the agricultural, industrial,

						Agricultu	ire.	-	Industry (inclu.1	
District and	Natura	al Divis	ion.		Population	Proportion of agricul- tural popu-	cultural i	ge of agri- opulation of	Population supported by industry.	Proportion of industrial population per 1,000 of district popu
					supported by agriculture,	lation per 1,000 of district population.	Actual workers.	Depen- dents.	-	lation.
	1				3	3	4	5	6	7
<b>P</b> rovince			••	••	83,22,223	692	55	45	821,724	68
I.—Central Basin	n		•••		2,746,505	667	67	43	<i>351,909</i>	. 8 <b>6</b>
Prome					221.140	716	59	41	26,056	69
Thayetmyo	•••	•••	•••		271,140	759	19	, 51	11,436	46
Pakôkku	•••	•••	•••		287,625	702	54	46	37,012	90
Minbu	•••	•••	•••	•••	185,993	705	55	45	15,622	71 45
Magwe Mandalay	•••	•••	•••	•••	243,390		57	43	14,838 54,768	101
Mandalay Shwebo	•••	• •	•••		119,827 266,538	35 <sup>2</sup> 748	55 63	45	19,900	56
Sagaing		•••	•••	•••	216,740	, 691	57	43	23,513	75
Lower Ch'ndv	vin		•••	•••	186,820	591	57 58	42	42,268	:34
Kyauksè	•••	•••	•••	•••	81,358		00	40	15,501 22,124	79
Meiktila Yamèthin	•••	•••	•••	•••	230,308	621	62 48	38 52	14,706	48
Myingyan		•••	•••		294,539	667	64	36	50,765	115
IIDeltaic Plair	ns	•••	•••	•••	2,964,575	686	<i>51</i>	49	267,67 <i>5</i>	<i>59</i>
Rangoon					7, <sup>9</sup> 43	27	53	47	80,000	273
Hanthawaddy	·•• '•••	•••	•••		363,925	675	42	58	37,515	70
Tharrawaddy		•••	• • •	•••	337,031	778	57	43	12,714	29
Pegu	•••	•••	•••	•••	311,739	726	44	56	16,054	37 43
Bassein Henzada	•••	•••	•••	•••	321,700	736	55 60	45 40	19,232 24,916	47
Myaungmya	•••	•••	•••	•••	393,806	740	54	46	13,076	39
Ma-ubin		•••	***	***	202,528	664	57	43	13,656	45
Pyapôn	•••	•••	•••	•••	182,168	711	49	51	10,004	39 41
Thatôn	•••	***	•••	•••	331,366	795	48	52 53	16,938 13,570	39
Toungoo	•••	•••	•••	•••	260,545	756	47	23	13,370	
III.—Northern H	'ill Dist	tricts	•••	•••	461,407	686	61	39	31,958	48
Bhamo	•••				77,904	723	6r	39	4,440	4I
Myitkyina	•••	•1 •	•••	•••	63,529	742	75	<sup>2</sup> 5	1,700 8,882	20 45
Katha ' Ruby Mines	•••	•••	•••	•••	154,363	779 486	55 66	45 34	7,329	73
Upper Chind	win	•••	•••	•••	116,727	684	59	41	9,607	56
 IV.—Coast Rang	es	•••	•••	•••	1,089,471	725	52	48	85,692	57
						0		46	32,412	40
Akyab Northern Ar,	akan	•••	***	•••	385,661 21,076	728 948	54 66	34	69	3
Kyaukpyu	akan	•••	•••	•••	140,803	761	19	. 5r	5,924	32
Sandoway	•••	•••	•••	••.	81,777	80	55	45	3,625	35 8
Salween	•••	•••	•••	•••	42,363	908 691	44	56 50	384 24,060	71
Amherst Tavoy	•••	•••	•••		254,435 92,106	1	50 47	53	13,989	103
Mergui	•••	***	•••	•••		639	55	45	5,229	47
						-				•
V.—Specially Ad	dminis	tered 7	erritori	es	1,060,265	742	62	38	94,490	66
Northern Sh	an Sta	ites	•••	,	330,038	796	62	38	16,005	39 88
Southern Sh	an Sta	tes	***	•••	613,300	686	62 62	38 38	78,287	88
· Chin Hills	•••	• • • •	•••	•••	116,927	978	02	30		
Ragoon and Mai	ndalau	Cition	aambir	iád	13,360	30	54	46	116,720	259

# commercial and professional Population in Natural Divisions and Districts.

ing mines).	,		Commer	ce.	`	Professions.				
Percent industrial	populativa	Populatje a		reminerci	tage of al popula- not	Population	Proportion of professional population	Percen professional o	tage of population f	
Actual workers	Papen- Jones	replace Usy Commerces	floa per Dass of Lathet pepulations	Actual norters	Depen- dents	supported by profection.	per 1,000 of district population.	Actual workers.	Depen- dents-	
3	9	10	31	12	13	14	15	16	17	
53	41	1 597,373	133	57	43	256,276	21	56	44	
55	, 43	550 013	184	57	43	102,451	24	อี8	42	
61 51 55 55 55 55 55 55 57 40 57 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55 55	344 444 445 3444 344 444 445 3444	50.00 15,80.0 15,80.0 33.00 30.05 44.0 30.07 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00 45,00	134 4 5 5 4 5 5 4 5 5 4 5 5 4 5 5 4 5 5 4 5 5 4 5 5 4 5 5 4 5 6 5 4 5 6 6 6 6	8 +8 + 57 59 9 9 3 4 9 7 5 5 6 7 5 6 9 5 5 4 7	49497968449484 4443444444	7,083 4,654 7,379 6,272 5,820 12,953 0,700 8,755 8,755 4,415 10,654 5,750 10,332	19 19 18 24 18 38 27 28 27 28 27 28 27 28 27 28 27 28 27 28 24 27 28 27 28 27 28 27 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28	50 40 52 59 40 64 53 66 72 61 64 55	50 43 41 60 36 37 34 38 39 45	
53	42	634774	149	57	43	80,540	13	54	46	
50 7 + 7 + 2 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5	379 43 44 45 44 49 49 49 49	64,115 67,836 47,377 93,647 64,877 49,975 47,772 37,730 42,86 46,571	3°1 154 111 147 149 137 103 145 101	60 57 56 57 57 56 57 56 56 56 56	0 2 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5	13:555 9,601 0,750 7,950 5:787 9:945 4:577 4:103 4:649 6:538 6:854	46 18 16 18 13 19 14 13 18 16	47 54 50 53 48 57 55 57 53 58 47	53 46 40 47 53 43 45 43 37 42 53	
57	43	87,250	132	<i>ં</i> ક	42	15,659	24	49	51	
5+ 57 65 58	45 50 57 42	12,3(0 8,377 18,48) 24,733 23,240	115 68 93 236 136	53 57 55 59	41 32 43 45 41	1,865 847 5,941 2,009 4,994	17 10 30 20 29	40 40 44 61 50	51 60 56 39 50	
66	49	103.253	109	<i>ઉં</i> ક	<b>‡</b> 2	25,675	17	ő÷	<i>46</i>	
92 90 59 54 52 51 67	8 :0 ## #9 33 #9 33 #9	64,548 11,97 2,879 8,472 1,755 47,100 13,937 10,897	136 16 18 18 132 138 138 148 17	63 69 58 59 55 55 55 55 55	37 31 42 42 43 45 45	5,779 63 7,575 1,565 362 5,020 2,565 1,785	17 3 14 15 0 22 19	57 30 54 55 55 55 55 55 55	43 79 46 49 45 46 46	
57	43	152 664	103	69	40	31 951	22	59	41	
62 67 52	38 33 43	41,393 110,176 495	103 123 4	39 61 62	39 38	\$,256 23,567 118	19 20 1	68 57 52	32 +3 48	
62	33	: _ 147,581	. 327	<i>5</i> 3	41	21,276	47	<i>6</i> 3	47	

# SUBSIDIARY TABLE IV.—Occupations combined with agriculture (where agriculture is the Subsidiary Occupation).

}		igricultive is the					.*	•
Sub-class,	Order,		Number per mille who are partially Agriculturists.					
		Occupation.	Province.	Central Basin.	Deltaic Plains.	Northern Hill District.	Coast Ranges.	Specially Adminis- tered Territories
1(a)	1(p)	I(c)	2	3	4	5	6	7
I	••	Exploitation of the surface of the earth.	4	3	3	7	1	9
	1 (b)	Growers of special products and market gardening.	So	71	55	129	24	137
1	I (c)	Forestry	47	62	48	50	21	85
	I(d)	Raising of Farm stock	52	70	13	122	15	95
	I (e)	Raising of small animals (birds, bees, silk-worm, etc.)	34		59			
	2	Fishing and Hunting	43	70	29	99	18	112
II III	•••	Extraction of minerals Industry	15 48	14 68	72 14	22 117	 28	 68
	13 9 12 8	Wood  Metals  Food Industry  Industries of dress and the toilet.	55 37 62 47	49 72 107 66	27 I 6 9	144 129 127 75	75 3 21 15	134 67 117 49
ıv V	•••	Transport	54 46	80 56	22 21	111 99	33 10	102 105
	32 33 41	Hotels, Cafes, Restaurants, etc. Other Trade in food stuffs Trade of other sorts	84 60 31	130 74 37	8 26 20	159 120 78	3 10 10	132 117 82
VI VIII VIII X X	•••	Public Force	66 135 29 30 19	76 153 30 38 18	17 75 26 12 5	97 285 39 176 107	6 50 7 7 5	183 223 41 35 96
XII		pations. Unproduction	18	27	I	23		49

# SUBSIDIARY TABLE V.—Occupations combined with agriculture (where agriculture is the principal occupation).

Land Lords (Rent Roce	ivers).	Cultivators (Rent Pay	Form servants and field labourers.		
Subsidiary occupation.	Number per 10,000 who follow it.	Subsidiary occupation.	Number per 10,000 who follow it.	Subsidiary occupation.	Number per 10,000 who follow it.
I	2	3	+	5	6
All Subsidiary Occupa-	1,077		804		798
Rent Payers, Cultivators. Agricultural Labourers Curt Owners and Cartner Money Lenders and Gram Dealers. Other Tra lers of all kind Fishermen, Boat Owners and Boatmen. Cattle Brenders, Owners Dealers, Milamen and Butchers. Olerks of all kinds (Not Givers ment.) School Mic ters, Teachers, and Lawyers. Dieters. Gillendin, Jewellers, Frank Fishers, etc. Blackers, th. There in, Carperters. Other Occupations.	56 47 81 145 50 10 33 33	Rent Receivers Agricultural labourers General labourers Money-lenders and Gram Dealers Other Traders of all kinds Fishermen, Boat owners and Boatmen. Cartmen and Transport workers Cattle Breeders, Owners and Milkmen and Butchers. Willage watchmen Weavers Potters Potters Oil Frence, linack mith, Tinamith, and Carpenters. Other Occupations	13 53 35 13 26 6 41 6 8	Rent Receivers Rent Payers General labourers Rice Pounders and Rice Mill Coolies Others Traders of all kinds. Fishermen, Boatowners and Boatmen. Cartmen and Transport workers. Cattle Breeders, Owners and Dealers, Milkmen and Butchers. Village Watchmen Weavers Petters Blacksmith, Tinsmith and Carpenters. Other Occupations	3 20 3 24 4 14

# SUBSIDIARY TABLE VI.—Occupation of females by sub-classes and selected orders and groups—concluded.

Sub-class.	Order.	Group.	Occupations	Number of	ictual workers.	females
· .				Males.	Females.	per 1,000 males.
1 (a)	1(b)	1 (c)	2	3	4	5
	r8		Industries of luxury and those pertaining to literature and the	23,454	4,802	205
}		87	arts and sciences.  Makers of musical instruments			
		90	Makers of bangles, rosaries, bead and other necklaces, span- gles, lingams and sacred threads.	168	249 404	16,600 2,405
	19	93	Industries concerned with refuse matters (sweepers, scavengers, dust and sweeping contractors.)	. 6,667	1,604	., 211 .
IA	•••		Transport	181,734	43,944	242
	21	98	Transport by road Persons employed on the construction and maintenance of roads and bridges.	96,076 42,516	33,439 16,960	- 348 399
	22	104	Transport by rail	17,665 2,911	717	35
v	•••		Trade	315,665	363,429	1,167
_	26	108	Trade in textiles (trade in piecegoods wool, cetton, silk, hair	21,006	22,811	1,085
	29	111	and other textiles). Trade in metals (machinery, knife, tool, etc., sellers)	444	528	1,189
	30	112	Trade in pottery	2,425	3,784	1,560
1	32	114	Hotels, cafes, restaurants, etc Vendors of wine, liquors, wrated water, etc	9,335	3,445	369 306
١٠٠	33	1 ****	Other trade in food stuffs	6,501 113,579	1,990 169,795	1,495
		116	Fish dealers	22,420	38,655	1,724
1		117	Grocers and sellers of vegetable oil, salt, and other condiments	9,398	9,630	1,025
ļ ļ		118	Sellers of milk, butter, ghee, poultry, eggs, etc Sellers of sweetmeats, sugar, gur and molasses	4,456	1,837	412
1		120	Cardamon, betel-leaf, vegetables, fruit and areca nut sellers	17,902 25,849	38,634 41,963	2,158 1,623
•		121	Grain and pulse dealers	27,908	26,895	964
		122	Tobacco, opium, ganja, etc., sellers	3,906	10,336	2,646
1		124	Dealers in hay, grass, and fodder	1,567	1,756	1,121
!	35		Trade in furniture	4,487	3,445	767
	36	126	Trade in furniture, carpets, curtains and bedding Trade in building materials (stones, bricks, plaster cement, sandtiles, thatch, etc).	1,905 891	2,277 1,180	1,195
	38 39	130	Trade in fuel (dealers in firewood, charcoal, coal, cowdung, etc.) Trade in articles of luxury and those pertaining to letters and the arts and sciences.	3,738 3,883	2,224 1,488	595 383
		132	Dealers in common bangles, bead, necklaces, fans, small articles, toy, hunting, etc.	<del>2</del> 36	216	1,042
	41		Trade of other sorts	122,916	149,466	1,216
		135	Shop-keepers, otherwise unspecified	121,031 260	149,010	108
		137	Conjurors, acrobats, fortune-tellers, reciters, exhibitors of curiosities and wild animals.	- 1,447	422	292
VI	•••		Public Force	40,188	1,717	43
AII	•••		Public Administration	36,238	4,394	121
VIII	 46		Professions and Liberal Arts	121,417	23,235	191
1 i	40	149	Religious mendicants, inmates of monasteries, etc.	79,102 1,925	5,270	2,738
	48	"	Medicine	18,769	6,341	338
		155	Midwives, vaccinators, compounders, nurses, masseurs, etc	, 649	907	1,398
	50	160	Letters and arts and sciences	6,649	2,638 1,967	243 296
ıx			Persons living on their income	2,176	493	- 226
x	52		Domestic service	47,816	10,987	230
		162	Cooks, water carriers, doorkeepers, watchmen and other indoor servants.	45,153	10,862	141
xı	53		Insufficiently described occupations	180,246	76,922	427
		167	Labourers and workmen otherwise unspecified	149,251	74,320	498
XII	•••		Unproduction	16,405	9,987	609
	55	169	Beggars, vagrants, prostitutes (procurers, receivers of stolen goods, cattle poisoners, etc).	8,353	9,943	1,190

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE VII.—Selected Occupations, 1911 and 1901.

Sub-class.	Order,	Group.	Occupations,	Population supported in 1911.	Population supported in 1901.	Percentage of variation.
1(a)	1(b)	1(c)	2	3	4	5
	~		All Industries	12,039,083	10,363,613	+ 16
I		***	Exploitation of the surface of the earth	8,624,395	7,084,339	+ 22
	t t(a)	 t 2	Pasture and Agriculture	8,472,391 8,083,712 2,20,485 6,215,154 123	6,950,359 6,460,934 7,13,508 420,896 3,658	+ 22 + 25 - 69 + 337 - 97
*	1(c)	 5 6	collectors, etc. Farm servants and field labourers Growers of special products and market gardening Tea, coffee, cinchona, indigo and rubber plantations Fruit, flower, vegetable, betal vine, areca nut, etc., growers. Forestry Wood cutters, firewood, 'ac, cutch and rubber collectors	1,647,950 238,511 6,217 232,294 42,765 37,649	4,322,872 385,528 21,120 364,408 36,345 32,201	- 62 - 38 - 70 - 36 + 17 + 17
-	1(d)	9	and charcoal burners. Raising of farm stock Cattle and buffalo breaders and keepers Sheep, goat and pig breeders	105,944 2,645 12,232	67,527	+ 57 - 55 + 259
	I (e) 2	11 12  14 15	Breeders of other animals (horses, mules, etc.) Herdsmen, shepherds, goat-herds, etc Raising of small animals (birds, bees, silkworms, etc.) Fishing and Hunting Fishing	35 91,032 1,459 152,004 151,601 403	473 57,751 25 133,980 127,036 6,944	- 93 + 58 + 5,736 + 13 + 19 - 94
11	•••		Extraction of minerals	15,93	6,797	+ 125
	3 4 5	•••	Mines	8,173 3,896 3,224	881 470 5,446	+ 828 + 729 - 41
-III	••		Industries	806,431	1,028,022	22
	6	21 22 23 24 26	Textiles	155,050 2,282 132,737  1,241 46	295,9 <sup>8</sup> 5 3,104 243,670 79 7,528 509	- 48 - 26 - 46 - 84 - 12
		27 30	carpets, etc.  Silk spinners and weavers  Dyeing, bleaching, printing, preparation and sponging of textiles.	18,621 62	34,104 6,237	— 45 — 99
	7	33	Hides, skins and hard materials from the animal king- dom.  Tanners, curriers, leather dressers, leather dyers, etc	624	1,813 648	- 66 - 75
-	• 8	33 34 35  36 37	Makers of leather articles, such as trunks, water bags, etc. Furriers	207 5 251 191,686 143,719 47,967	1,037 128 185,549 148,498 37,051	- 80 + 96 + 3 - 3 + 429
	9	39 41	Metals	34,912 3 29,040	40, <b>5</b> 79 95 29,838	— 14 — 97 — 3
	10	12	Workers in brass, copper and bell metal Ceramics	554 18,821	3,333 27,878	$-\begin{array}{cc} - & 8_3 \\ - & 3^2 \end{array}$
	11	47	Potters and earthern pipe and bowl makers Chemical products properly so called and analogous Manufacture and refining of vegetable and mineral oils	15,323	19,800 18,680	- <sup>23</sup> - 43
	12	53  56 57 58	Food industries	9,110 178,255 110,623 1,234 94	11,307 230,650 101,337 2,278 142	- 19 - 23 + 9 - 46 - 34
	-	59 60 62 63 64	Butchers Fish curers Makers of sugar, molasses and gur Sweetmeat makers, preparer of jam and condiments, etc. Brewers and distillers	6,897 20 8,298 2,113 653	9,517  9,937 4,637 822	- 28 - 16 - 54 - 21

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE VII.—Selected Occupations, 1911 and 1901—continued.

Sub-class.	Order.	Group.	Occupations,	Population supported in 1911.	Population supported in 1901.	Percentage of variation.
1 (a)	ı (b)	1 (c)	. 3	3		<u></u>
						5
	13	65  68	Toddy drawers	35,152 116,056 60,870	70,918 104,796 57,915	- 50 + 11 + 5
	14 15 16 17 18	69 71 72  77 78 	Shoe, boot and sandal makers Washing, cleaning and dyeing Barbers, hairdressers and wig makers Furniture industries Building industries Excavators, plinth builders and well sinkers Stone and marble workers, masons and bricklayers Construction of means of transport Production and transmission of physical forces Industries of luxury and those pertaining to literature and	11,972 23,742 4,877 1,862 24,257 209 13,003 2,187 180 58,878	18,499 8,873 3,293 1,025 53,592 903 16,559 12,121 230 50,911	- 35 + 163 + 48 + 82 - 56 - 70 - 21 - 82 + 16
		80	the arts and sciences. Workers in precious stones and metals, enamellers, imitation	50,232	_	+ 16
		90	jewellery makers, gilders, etc. Makers of bangles, rosaries, bead and other necklaces,	1,297	13,420	<b>–</b> 8
	19	93	spangles, lingams and sacred threads. Industries concerned with refuse matters	13,103	4,225	+ 310
īV			Transport	393,652	259,053	+ 52
	20	95	Transport by water Shipowners and their employés, ship brokers, ship officers, engineers, mariners, and firemen.	131,071	113,951 10,446	+ 15
		96	Persons employed on the maintenance of streams, rivers and canals (including construction).	66	50	+ 33
	21	97	Boat owners, boatmen and tow men  Transport by road  Persons employed on the construction and maintenance of	118,771 230,168	100,942	+ 18 + 80 + 120
-		98 99	roads and bridges.  Cart owners and drivers, coachmen, stable boys, tramway, mail carriage, etc., managers and employés (excluding private servants).	91,541	41,636 74,520	+ 77
		101	Palki, etc., bearers and owners Pack elephant, camel, mule, ass and bullock owners and drivers.	6,304	127 4,416	+ 17 + 43
	22	103	Porters and messengers	27,686 22,633	7,516 12,033 11,933	- 99 + 130 + 90
	23	104	Labourers employed on railway construction Post Office, Telegraph and Telephone services	5,053 4,727	100 4,854	+ 4,953 3
v	***	•••	Trade	1,203,721	1,010,081	+ 19
	24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32	-106 107 108 109 110 111 112 113  114 115	Banks, establishments of credit exchange and insurance Brokerage, commission and export brokers Trade in textiles Trade in skins, leather and furs Trade in wood Trade in metals Trade in pottery Trade in chemical products Hotels, Cafés, Restaurant, etc Vendors of wine, liquors, aerated waters, etc Owners and managers of hotels, cookshop, sarais, etc., and their employés.	17,345 21,415 74,875 1,481 21,988 1,644 10,386 2,903 21,651 14,474 7,177	8,929 27,161 45,450 190 30,629 1,339 6,963 6,473 20,691 11,223 9,468	+ 94 + 65 + 679 - 28 + 23 + 49 - 55 + 29 - 24
	33	 116 117	Other trade in food stuffs Fish dealers	-513,911 107,111 35,978	451,914 77,144 43,976	- 14 + 39 - 18
	3 <del>4</del> 35	118 119 120 121 122 123 124 125 	ments.  Sellers of milk, butter, ghee, poultry, etc  Sellers of sweetmeats, sugar, gur and molasses  Cardamom, betel-leaf, vegetables, fruit and areca nut sellers  Grain and pulse dealers  Tobacco, opium, ganja, etc., sellers  Dealers in sheep, goats and pigs  Dealers in hay, grass and fodder  Trade in clothing and toilet articles  Trade in furniture  Hardware, clothing, utensils, porcelain, crockery, glassware,	10,378 108,839 117,309 105,332 22,363 1,058 5,544 6,531 13,496 6,359	9,923 106,148 90,964 78,489 40,384 371 4,515 8,183 7,158 4,654	+ 4 + 3 + 29 + 34 - 45 + 185 + 23 - 19 + 89 + 37
	36 37 38	12S 129 130	bottles, articles for gardening, the cellar, etc. Trade in building materials Trade in means of transport Trade in fuel	3,057 15,661 10,753	4,942 26,223 4,466	- 38 - 40 + 141

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE VII.—Selected Occupations, 1911 and 1901—concluded.

Sub-class.	Order.	Group.	Occupations.	Population supported in 1911,	Population supported in 1901.	Percentage of variation.
ı(a)	1(b)	1(c)	2	3	4	5
			,			
	39		Trade in articles of luxury and those pertaining to letters	10,961	19,684	44
		131	and arts and sciences.  Dealers in precious stones, jewellery (real and imitation),	8,591	13,047	- 34
			clocks, optical instruments, etc.			1
		132	Dealers in common bangles, bead, necklaces, fans, small articles, toys, hunting and fishing tackle, flowers, etc.	1,150	4,412	<del>-</del> 74
	11 10		Trade in refuse matter	94 455,569	339,686	+
		135	Shop-keepers otherwise unspecified Other traders (including farmers of pounds, toll and	450,939 358	328,970 6,028	+ 37
		.30	markets)	330	0,020	. 94
VI			Public Force	79,495	54,001	+ 47
	42	139	Army	24,984	16,619	+ 50
	13	140	Army (Native States)	 28	64 791	— 100 — 96
	43 41	•••	Police	54,483	36,591	+ 49
		142	Police   Village Watchmen	54,266 217	36,591	+ 48 + 100
				,		
VII	45	••	Public Administration	103,108	138,169	<b>—</b> 25
		144	Service of the State	31,294 2,976	49,831 8,414	— 31 — 65 — 38
		146	Municipal and other local (not village) service	4,174	6,711	38
		147	Village officials and servants other than watchmen	61,664	73,213	<u> </u>
VIII			Profession and Liberal Arts	256,276	253,026	+ 1
	46		Religion	140,834	148,386	- 5
		148	Priests, ministers, etc	128,642	1,017 1 <b>3</b> 8,329	+ 12,549 - 92
		150	Catechists, readers, church and mission service Temple, hurial or burning ground service, pilgrim conductors, circumcisers.	431 120	6,446 2,594	- 93 - 95
	47	152	Law	8,306 6,079	7,147 3,976	+ 16 + 53
		153	Lawyers' clerks, petition-writers, etc	2,227	3,171	- 30 + 5
	48	151	Medicine	52,172 49,582	49,290 44, <b>7</b> 71	+ 5
			oculists and veterinary surgeons. Midwives, vaccinators, compounders, nurses, masseurs, etc.			
	49	155	Instruction	2,590 26,939	4,519 16,988	+ 43 + 59
-	50	159	Letters, and arts and sciences Others (authors, photographers, artists, sculptors, astrono-	28,025 5,666	31,215 3,679	- 10 + 5+
			mers, meteorologists, botanists, astrologers, etc.)	_		
		160	Music composers, masters and players, singers, actors and dancers.	16,495	18,082	<b>—</b> 9
ıx	51	161	Persons living principally on their income	6,967	7,285	- 4
x	52		Domestic Service	85,771	67,073	+ 27
	1	162	Cooks, water-carriers, doorkeepers, watchmen, and other	82,197	59,202	+ 39
1		163	indoor servants. Private grooms, coachmen, dog boys, etc	3,574	7,871	- 55
ΧI	53		Insufficiently described Occupations	429,399	416,101	+ 3
		161	Manufacturers, business men and contractors otherwise	10,852	5,882	-
			unspecified.	-		
		165	Cashiers, accountants, bock-keepers, clerks and other employés in unspecified effices, warehouses and shops.	58,873	16,630	+ 254
		167	Labourers and workmen, ot ierwise unspecified	351,434	392,654	<u> </u>
XII			Unproductive	34,575	39,666	- 13
	54 55	- 168	Inmates of jails, asylums and hospitals	8,500	11,804	- 28
1 .	55	169	Beggars, vagrants, prostitutes	26,075	27,862	<del>-</del> 7

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE VIII—Occupation by Religions.

2					N	umber	per n	nille w	ho ar	e
Class.	Sub-class,	Order,	Group.	Occupations.	Buddlist.	Animist.	Hindu.	Mahomedan.	Christian.	Others.
		į		All Industries	863	52	32	35	17	ı
A			•••	Production of raw materials	887	62	11	23	17	
В	•••		•••	Preparation and supply of material substances	831	29	65	65	9	I
С		•••	•••	Public administration and liberal arts	809	15	57	48	60	II
ם	•••	•••	•••	Miscellaneous	668	24	200	80	27	1
	I	 I I (a)	 1 2 4	Exploitation of the surface of the earth Pasture and Agriculture Ordinary cultivation Income from rent of Agricultural land Ordinary cultivators	887 886 886 840 874 934	62 63 64 103 77	11 11 10 9 7 21	23 23 23 32 23 22	17 17 17 16 19	
		I (b)	6	Growers of special products and market gardening	909 923	39 40	24	13	16 16	
		I (c)	. 8	Forestry	952 960	29 31	3	1 2	11 4	:
		I (d)	 9	Raising of farm stock	847 406 823	42 175 137	55 375 5	44 35	12 9 34	•••
		2		Herdsmen, shepherds, goatherds, etc	863 926	<sup>2</sup> 5	5 <sup>2</sup>	50 36	3	
	II		1.4	Extraction of minerals	926. 691	15	20 245	37 63	2 I	•••
	**	3 4	•••	Mines	459 925		+36 47	104 26	I 2	•••
		5	***	Salt, etc	997			3		•••
	III	6	 2I 22	Industry	846 973 256 990	26 + + 4 4	73 15 603 2	49 8 137	6	•••
-		S	27  36	Silk spinners and weavers	993 932 916	37 41	18 14 3	4 15 19	3	
		9	37	Basket makers and other industries of woody materials including leaves.  Metals	980 871 880	12 23 26	69 69	5 35 23	3 2	
•	1	10	47	pally or exclusively of iron.	86o		112	26	2	
1		II.	47	Potters and earthern pipe and bowl makers Chemical products, properly so called and analogous	978 235			28	7	
	•	12		Manufacture and refining of vegetable and mineral oils Food industries	158 830	11	81	71	6 4	:::
:	í		56 59 62	Rice pounders and huskers and flour grinders	771 648 999	14	22 I		5 25	ĭ
;	:		63 65	Sweetmeat makers, preparers of jam and condiments, etc Toddy drawers	995	19	3	63		12
		13	 68	Industries of dress and the toilet		137	39	98	8	I
į			69 71	Shoe, boot and sandal makers	778 520		303	18	3 7	1
;		15	72	Barbers, hairdressers and wig makers	38 794		545	369	5	4
1	i	16	78	Stone, and marble workers, masons and bricklayers Construction of means of transport	75 <sup>1</sup> 73 <sup>2</sup>	7	95	68	34	2
	k	18	· ····	Industries of luxury and those pertaining to literature and the arts and sciences.	868	10	68	31	22	1
!			(3	Workers in precious stones and metals, enamellers, imitation jewellery makers, gilders, etc.	932	5	47	11	4	1
	IV	19	93	Industries concerned with refuse matter	393 725	1	504 137	74 97	20	6
	14	20	95	Transport by water  Ship owners and their employes, ship brokers, ships' officers, engineers, mariners and firemen.	761	13	55	152	18 75	
		15		Boat owners, boat-men and tow-men	827 782		127	60	6 8	1 1
		,	. 55 . 93	Persons employed on the construction and maintenance of roads and bridges.  Cart owners and drivers, coachmen, stable boys, tramway, mail	687 851	37 16	67	62	3	1
	t a w hair Jawa			carriage, etc., managers and employés (excluding private servants).		.				

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE VIII.—Occupation by Religions—concluded.

					N	umber	per r	nille w	ho ar	<u>.</u>
Ciass.	Sub-class.	Order.	Group.	Occupations.	Buddhist.	Animist,	Hindu,	Mahomedan.	Christian.	Others.
,		22	101  103 104 105	Pack elephant, camel, mule, ass and bullock owners and drivers  Transport by rail  Railway employés of all kinds other than construction coolies  Labourers employed on railway construction  Post Office, Telegraph and Telephone services	744 136 137 135 371	158 9 3 5	567	186 143 148 118 107	35 113 119 88 186	22 20 28
	· <b>v</b>	24 25 26 28 30 31 32	 106 107 108 110 112 113 	Trade	857 637 745 795 839 975 762 655 669 627	35 12 53 36 25 11 18 144 152	36 182 119 33 80 6 98 79 91 52.	65 97 56 132 45 6 100 108 79 166	6 65 22 3 10 2 22 8 4 17.	7 5 1  6 5 9
		33 34 35	 116 117 118 119 120 121 122 124 125	Other trade in fcod stuffs Fish dealers Grocers and sellers of vegetable oil; salt and other condiments Sellers of milk, butter, ghee, poultry, eggs, etc. Sellers of sweetmeats, sugar, gur and molasses Cardamon, betel-leaf, vegetables, fruit and areca nut sellers Grain and pulse dealers Tobacco, opium, ganja, etc., sellers Dealers in hay, grass and fodder Trade in clothing and toilet articles Trade in furniture Hardware, cooking utensils, porcelain, crockery, glassware, bottles,	897 942 898 280 881 910 913 894 849 869 913	21 13 6 52 12 36 25 29  74 15 20	34 10 27 435 50 16 22 19 137 137	44 33 65 221 55 34 35 46 12 36 62 100	3 2 2 8 2 4 4 11 2 6 1	1 2 I I 2 I. 2
		36 37 38 39	128  130 	articles for gardening, the cellars, etc.  Trade in building materials  Trade in means of transport  Trade in fuel  Trade in articles of luxury and those pertaining to letters and the arts and sciences.  Dealers in precious stones, jewellery (real and imitation), clocks,	953 764 848 745	7 64 37 5 <sup>2</sup>	12 27 70 <u>-</u> 1	27 142 39 141	3 6 . 6	  5
		- †1	135	optical instrument, etc. Trade of other sorts Shopkeepers otherwise unspecified	848 851	11 41	26 24	73 73	8 7	1
	Λı	 42 44	139  142	Public force	575 114 787 786	16 11 18 18	154 310 83 83	126 246 70 70	74 176 28 28	55 143 14 15
,	AII	45	144 145 146 147	Public administration	795 646 862 239 913	32 6 126 6 43	74 158 7 146 6		62 124 5 159 23	1 4  4
	VIII	46 47 48	148 149  152 153	Professions and liberal arts	892 940 945 921 769 770 770 88 901	9 10 10 4  7 6	18 5 5 10 51 49 56 34 31	27 16 16 14 92 81 121 34 34	53 29 24 51 82 94 49 35 26	1  6 6 4 2 2
		49 50	155 156  159	Midwives, vaccinators, compounders, nurses, masseurs, etc Instruction Letters and arts and sciences Others (authors, photographers, artists, sculptors, astronomers, meteorologists, botanists, astrologers, etc.	647 699 878 887 942	15 3 13 36	94 21 47 39		194 219 43 25	1 2 3
-	X	51 <b>5</b> 3	161  162	Persons living principally on their income	606 427 440	12 26 27	107 320 306	128 150	143 74 77	3 3
	XI	53	164 165	General terms which do not indicate a definite occupation  Manufacturers, business men and contractors otherwise unspecified Cashiers, Accountants, book-keepers, clerks and other employes in unspecified offices, warehouses, and shops.	702 475 443 762	23 35 5 <sup>2</sup>	189	66 291 134	19 35 91	1 1 2
	XII	54 55	168 169	Unproductive	841 856 835	35 5 14	39 73 29	70 50 77	3 13 11 14	I 2 5 1

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE IX.—Proportional distribution by selected occupations of Hindus and Mahomedans.

Class and Sub-	Order.	Group.	Selected Occupations.	Mahomedan	Hindus and per 10,000 of eligion.
class.				Hindus.	Mahomedans
- A	•••	**1	Production of raw materials	2,521	a bra
ı		•••	Exploitation of the surface of the earth		4,754
	I I(a) 	  1 2 4	Pasture and Agriculture Ordinary cultivation Income from rent of Agricultural Land Ordinary Cultivators Farm servants and field labourers	2,424 2,348 2,046 53 1,099	4,731 4,599 4,413 169 3,402 843
	1(b)		Growers of special products and market gar- dening.  Fruit, flower, vegetable, betel, vine and areca nut,	149 55	67 64
	1(d) 2 		etc., growers. Raising of farm stock Fishing and Hunting Fishing	149 77 77	111 132 132
В	•••		Preparation and supply of material substances	4,004	3,697
III		•••	Industry	1,512 144	934 57
		53	Manufacture and refining of vegetable and mineral oils.	139	- 5 <sup>2</sup>
	12  13 	56  68	Food industries	3 <sup>§</sup> 3 361 4 <sup>1</sup> 2 61	299 219 270 177
	 19	71 93	Washing, cleaning and dyeing Industries concerned with refuse matters (sweepers, scavengers, dust and sweeping contractors).	239 169	39 23
IV	 20 	  95	Transport	1,384 186 48	905 473 134
	 2I 	<sup>97</sup> <sup>98</sup>	Boat owners, boatmen and towmen  Transport by road  Persons employed on the construction and maintenance of roads and bridges.	748 516	3 <sup>2</sup> 9 3 <sup>2</sup> 6 103
-	·•.	99	Cart owners and drivers, coachmen, stable boys, tramway, mail carriage, etc., managers and employés.	229	195
		103	Transport by rail Railway employes of all kinds other than construction coolies.	3 <sup>2</sup> 9	94 80
~ <b>v</b>	26 33 41	 10 <sup>8</sup>  135	Trade	1,108 63 447 300 276	1,858 236 540 787 - 778
С	•••	•••	Public Administration	652	508
VI	 42	 139	Public Force	314 199	237 146
VII	45 	 144	Public Administration Service of the State	197	88 50
VIII			Professions and Liberal Arts	121	163
a		. <b></b>	Miscellaneous	2,819	1,041
x	52 	 162 	Domestic Service	704 645	305 287
ıx	 53		Insufficiently described occupations General terms which do not indicate a definite occupation.	2,080 2,080	678 678
	•••	165 167	Cashiers, Accountants, book-keepers, clerks and other employés in unspecified offices, etc.  Labourers and workmen otherwise unspecified	421 1,585	187 340

## SUBSIDIARY TABLE X(a).—Number of Persons employed in the Postal Department on the 10th March 1911.

Class of Per	ons em	ployed.				Europeans and Anglo-Indians.	Indians and - Burmans.	Total,
Grand Total				••.		47	2,845	2,892
A.—Post Offices only (1) Officers (including In	· ·		••	••		45	2,579	2,624
(2) Post Masters			••	• •	::	13 5	22 368	35 373
(3) Miscellaneous Superi	• •		••	••	::	2 24	68 481	70. 505
(5) Postmen, etc (6) Road Establishment	::	••	••	••	::	,	1,228	1,228 413
RCOMBINED POST AND	TELE					2	266	268
(7) Signallers (8) Messengers	••	••	••	••	::	2	113	115 153

SUBSIDIARY TABLE X(b).—Number of Persons employed in the Telegraph Department on the 10th March 1911.

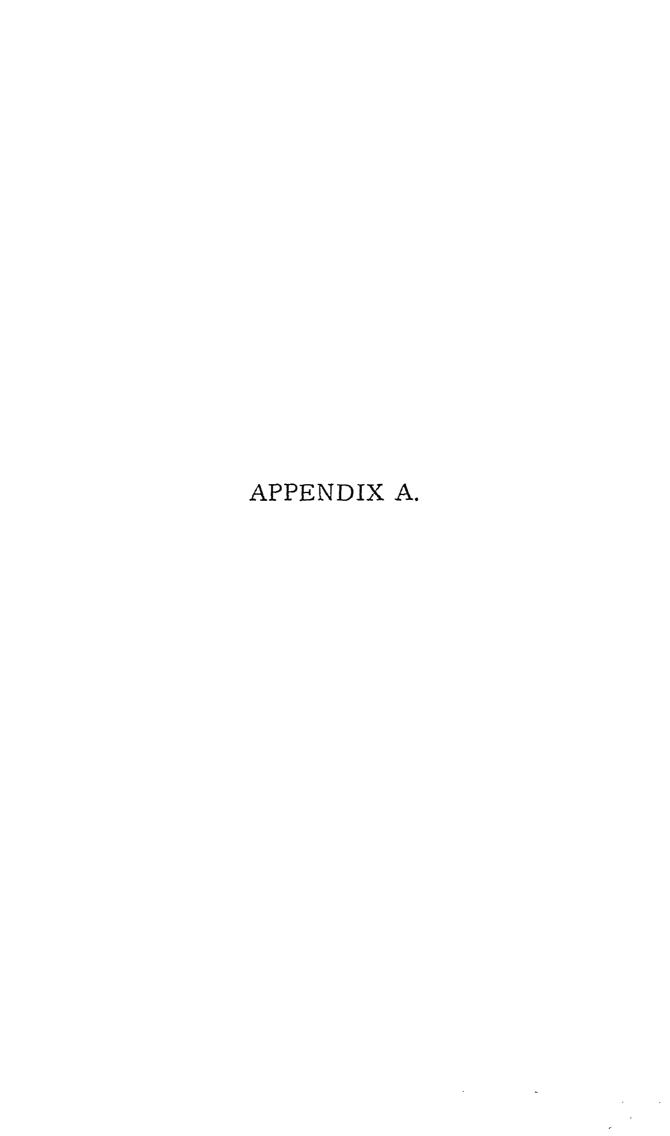
Class of Persons employed.	Europeans and Anglo-Indians.	Indians and Burmans.	Total.
Grand Total	336	1,971	2,307
A Administrative Establishment	18	4	22
(1) Director-General		7	
(2) Directors	1		ı
(3) Superintendents	4		4
(4) Assistant Superintendents	2	4	Ġ
(5) Deputy Superintendents	10	••	10
(6) Royal Engineers, Officers and men	1	••	I
B.—Signalling Establishment	311	20	331
(1) Deputy Superintendents	3	1	33 <u>-</u> 4
(2) Telegraph Masters (Permanent)	27		27
(3) Telegraph Masters (Temporary)	33		33
(4) Telegraphists	197	15	212
(5) Native Inspecting Signallers	ī	3 1	4
(6) Warrant Officers, unattached list	••		**
(7) Military Telegraphists	49		49
(S) Non-Commissioned Officers, unattached list	1		í
(9) Other Employés	••	I	I
CCLERNS OF ALL KINDS	7	78	80
(1) In Administrative Offices	Ī	27	85 28
(2) In Signal Offices	4	38	42
(3) In other Offices	2	13	15
D. Course Langua		- 1	-
143 33-4-4-1	•	364 8	364
(2) Carpenters	•	- 1	8
(3) Black-smiths	••	7	7
(4) Sub-Inspectors	•	51	••
(5) Linemen and Line Riders	•	243	51
(6) Other employes		55	243
• •		1	55
EUNSKILLED LAEOUR	••	1,049	1,049
(r) Line coolies	••	748	748
(2) Cable guards	••	5	5
(3) Battery men	••	11 285	11
	••		285
FMessengers and other servants	••	456	456
(1) Duitries	••	3	3
(2) Farashes	•	3	3
(3) Pecns	••	323	323
(4) Chaukidars	••	2	2
	**	39	39
(6) Sweepers	••	56 30	56 30
My care embrodes			30

SUBSIDIARY TABLE X(c).—Number of Persons employed in the Irrigation Branch of the Public Works Department on the 10th March 1911.

Class of Person	is emplo	yed.			Europeans and Anglo-Indians.	Indians and Burmans.	Total.
Grand Total		••			29	14,509	14,538
A PERSONS DIRECTLY EM	PLOYED				24	2,148	2,172
(1) Ozors			• •		17		17
in Upper Subordinates .		••		••	3	13	16
(2) Lower Subordinates .		• •	• •	••	3	97	ICO
(4) Peons and other servan	its	• •	• •	•• ]	••	503	503
(5) Coolies		••	• •		••	1,422	1,422
(6) Canal Inspectors .		••	• •	••	I	18	19
(7) Canal Surveyors .	• • •	••	••	••	••	94	94
(S) Temporary Člerks .	• ••	••	• •	••	••	I	I
B.—PERSONS INDIRECTLY I	EMPLOYE	D	• •	••	5 (	12,361	12,356
(1) Contractors		••	• •	••	1 .	245	کپتے
(2) Contractors' regular en	iployés	••	• •		4	193	197
(3) Coolies		••	• •	••	••	17,92	11,^

# SUBSIDIARY TABLE X (d).—Number of Persons employed on the Burma Railways on the 10th March 1911.

	Class	of perso	na em	ploye	d.				Europeans and Anglo- Indians.	Indians and Burmans.	Total.
Grand Total		• •	•	••		•••		• •	783	27,427	28,21
A.—Agency Depart I.—Persons direct		PLOYE	• -	• •	• •	••	••	••	10 16	44	Ç
(1) Officers							• •	••	3	44	હ
(2) Subordinates (3) Subordinates (4) Subordinates	drawing	from I	lu, 20	to R	7. 75 D	er men	rem •••	••	3	11 16 17	2 1 1
II,-Persons indi			day(		• •						
(1) Contractors (2) Contractors (3)			•	• •	• •	• •	• •	• •	••	,	••
(3) Coolies			•		. •	• •	.,	••	••	••	
.—Traffic Depart						• •	• •	••	279	6,26.	6,54
I.—PERSONS DIREC				• •	• •	• •	• •	••	279	3,620	. 3,89 1
(2) Subordinates (3) Subordinates (	drawing drawing	more t	han R	3. 75	per m	ensem	• •	••	162 160	31	19
(4) Subordinates							• •	••		1,437 2,149	1,53 2,14
II.—Persons indi		EMPLO	) YED		• •		••		••	2,6.41	2,64
(1) Contractors (2) Contractors' s		• •		• •	••	••	••	••	••	314	••
i i o u	•••••		•	• •	••	••	•••	••	••	2,300	3.1 2,30
C.—LOCOMOTIVE, CA				s Di	EPARTS	HENT			336	6,029	6,36
I.—Persons Direction (1) Officers	TLY EM			• •	••	••	·	••	336 15	5.832	6,16
(2) Subordinates		more t	han R	3. 75	per m	ensem		••	223	 51	27
(3) Subordinates (4) Subordinates (							sem	••	.;6 52	2,167 3,614	2,21 3,66
IIPersons indi	RECTLY	EMPLO	YED .			••			••	197	19
(1) Contractors (2) Contractors's			•	• •	••	• •	• •	••	••	28	2
1.1.0	• •			• •	••	••	••		••	145 24	1.4 2.
AUDIT DEPARTS	HNT .		•			••			13	314	32
I.—PERSONS DIREC	TLY EM	IPLOYE	D ,		• •	• •	• •	•••	13	314	32
(2) Subordinates of	drawing	more t	han R				• •	::	4 9	27	3
(3) Subordinates (4) Subordinates (							em ••	::		3.42 45	2.j
II.—Persons indi	RECTLY	EMPLO	YED .			••					
(1) Contractors (2) Contractors's			•	••	•	••	••		••		•••
(3) Coolies	•• •	: :	•	• •	••	••	••	::		:-	••
STORES DEPARTS	MENT .		•						6	395	401
I.—PERSONS DIREC	TLY EM	PLOYE	D,	• •	••	••	••	::	6 3	53	59 3
(I) Officers .	• • • • • •	more t	han R		• •	• •	• •	}	3)		
(2) Subordinates	irawing	C		8. 75	per me	nsem	• •	•••	I	11	12
(2) Subordinates ( (3) Subordinates ( (4) Subordinates (	drawing	from R	s. 20 1	to Rs.	. 75 per	r mense	em		1	11 42	12
(3) Subordinates (4) Subordinates (	drawing drawing	from R under	ls. 20 l Rs. 20	to Rs.	. 75 per	r mense	em	•••		42	12 44 **
(3) Subordinates (4) Subordinates (1) Persons India (1) Contractors	drawing drawing	from R under	s. 20 ( Rs. 20 YED .	to Rs.	. 75 per mensem	r mens	••			42 342 2	12 44 ** 34 <sup>2</sup>
(3) Subordinates (4) Subordinates (5)  II.—Persons Indi (1) Contractors (2) Contractors's	drawing drawing	from R under	s. 20 ( Rs. 20 YED .	to Rs.	. 75 per mensem	r mense	em			42 342	12 44 ** 34 <sup>2</sup>
(3) Subordinates (4) Subordinates (5) Contractors (1) Contractors (2) Contractors' si (3) Coolies	drawing drawing RECTLY	from R under I	Rs. 20 Rs. 20	to Rs.	. 75 permensem	r mens	••			342 2 1 339	34 <sup>2</sup> 339
(3) Subordinates (4) Subordinates (5) (4) Subordinates (6) II.—Persons India (7) Contractors (2) Contractors (3) Coolies  F.—Medical Depart I.—Persons direct	drawing drawing RECTLY taff TMENT TLY EM	EMPLO	Rs. 20 (Rs. 20)	to Rs.	. 75 permensem	r mense	••			42 342 2 1	342 343 335 168
(3) Subordinates (4) Subordinates (5) (4) Subordinates (6) II.—Persons India (2) Contractors' (3) Coolies  F.—Medical Depart I.—Persons direction (1) Officers (2) Subordinates (2) Subordinates (3)	drawing drawing RECTLY taff TMENT TTLY EM	EMPLOYED	Rs. 20 Rs. 20 YED .	to Rs.	75 permensem	r mense				342 2 1 339 157 157	342 343 1 333 168 168
(3) Subordinates (4) Subordinates (5) (4) Subordinates (6) II.—Persons India (7) Contractors (2) Contractors (3) Coolies  F.—Medical Depart (1) Persons Direction (1) Officers	drawing drawing RECTLY taff TMENT THEY TALY EM	EMPLOYED  more the from R	S. 20 Rs. 20 YED	to Rs.	75 per mersen	r mensel				342 2 1 339 157 157	12 44 34 33 10 108 108 108
(3) Subordinates (4) Subordinates (5) Subordinates (6) Subordinates (7) Contractors (7) Coolies  F.—MEDICAL DEPAR I.—PERSONS DIRECT (7) Officers (2) Subordinates (6) Subordinates (6) Subordinates (6) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinat	drawing drawing RECTLY taff TMENT TTLY EM TRAWING drawing drawing drawing	EMPLOVED more the from R under	S. 20 Rs. 20 YED Ann Rs. 20 Rs. 20 Rs. 20	to Rs. per r	75 per mersen	r mensel				342 2 1 339 157 157 19	342 2 335 168 168 168
(3) Subordinates (4) Subordinates (5) Contractors (2) Contractors (3) Coolies  7.—MEDICAL DEPAR I.—PERSONS DIRECT (1) Officers (2) Subordinates (4) Subordinates (4) Subordinates (5) Subordinates (6) Subordinates (6) Subordinates (7) Contractors	drawing drawing RECTLY taff  TMENT TTLY EM drawing drawing drawing RECTLY	EMPLOVED more the from R under	S. 20 Rs. 20 YED Ann Rs. 20 Rs. 20 Rs. 20	to Rs. per r	75 per mersen	r mensel				342 2 1 339 157 157 19	342 2 339 168 168 169 161 141
(3) Subordinates (4) Subordinates (5) Contractors (2) Contractors (3) Coolies  F.—MEDICAL DEPAR  I.—PERSONS DIRECT  (1) Officers (2) Subordinates (4) Subordinates (4) Subordinates (5) Subordinates (6) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordinates (7) Subordina	drawing drawing RECTLY taff  TMENT TTLY EM drawing drawing drawing RECTLY	EMPLOVED more the from R under	S. 20 Rs. 20 YED Ann Rs. 20 Rs. 20 Rs. 20	to Rs. per r	per mensen	r mensel				342 2 1 339 157 157 157	12 44  342 1 339 168 168 - 14
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### APPENDIX A.

## A NOTE ON THE PALAUNGS OF THE KODAUNG HILL TRACTS OF THE MOMEIK STATE

By A. A. CAMERON, Assistant Superintendent, Kodaung Hill Tracts.

#### CHAPTER I.—THE KODAUNG.

A map appended to this note shows that the tract is a rough triangle wedged in between the Sinlumkaba hill-tracts of the Bhamo district in the north and North Hsenwi on the south, having its apex in the Shweli river about seven miles from the Namhkam, and its base against the plains portion of the Momeik and the Tawngpeng State.

Division of Clans.—The map also shows that the country is divided into fifteen administrative circles or tracts, the boundaries of these tracts generally corresponding with the areas formerly peopled by different clans, except tracts III to VI which are peopled by Humais. Circles II and IX, Lwewein and Manjawp, are now peopled solely by Kachins, the previous Palaung residents having been driven out or emigrated elsewhere. Likewise tracts I and XV, Chauktaung and Manyawn, both of which were in former times peopled by separate clans under their own kins or clan chieftains, are now almost destitute of Palaung dwellers, there being only one village in the former and three in the latter.

The following table shows the distribution of the various Palaung clans, among all of which there is a close ethnical connection. Sub-clans have not been touched on.

Table showing Statistics of Population in the Kodaung Hill-tracts of Momeik State based on the Census of 1911.

Number of tracts.	- 'Name of trac	t.	Palaungs.	Kachins <del>.</del>	Shans.	Lishaws.	Others.	Remarks.
I III IV VI VIII VIII XX XII XIII XIV XV	Chauktaung Lwewein Sauram Sailen Humai Pankha Maingkwin Manmawk Manjawp Manton Manpat Manlon Manpun Yabon Manyawn		115* 1,213* 1,651* 3,340* 563* 2,075† 905‡ 439\$ 123   454¶ 564** 460†† 245‡‡	2,725 829 2,627 224 184 35 422 207 491 212 399 1,714 214 228 697	238 266 21 40 50	50 11 401 10	30	* Rao-mai clan. † Rao-kwang clan. † Rao-man clan. † Rao-nak clan. † Rao-nak clan. † Rao-naw clan. † Rao-pang clan. † Rao-pang clan. † Rao-pang clan. † Rao-pang clan.
	TOTAL		12,147	11,241	ętо	472	70	= 21,350

CHAPTER II.—PRESENT HABITAT.

This is correctly set out in Mr. Lowis' 2002

CHAPTER MI-CRIGIN.

vi

The various tribes have slightly different accounts of their origin, but they all agree in saving that they come from the north and north-east, this land being variously called (a) Sak-khung Lungto; (b) Möng Lapun Lapawn; (c) Hukawng-Hu-Chio and (d) Hukawng-Hukung, and various other names. The last two are the most significant—the meaning of Hu-kawng, Hu-kung in Shan, being the sources of the Nam Kawng and Nam Kung rivers, the former doubtless being the same as the Me Kawng, while Chio is the name for the Irrawaddy. It would, therefore, appear that somewhere near the sources of the Mekawng and the Irrawaddy rivers marks the locality where the various clans of Palaungs had their original home.

The different accounts of their southward journey, so far as tradition has it, is given

separately under the heading of the respective clans.

The Humais.—They state they came from Sak-hkong in the east and camped in Möngwa in Hsipaw; thence they journeyed to Ta-tang and thence to Man-Lung Man Ngai in Taungbaing and thence to Möng Yuk (? in Hsenwi). Owing to a dispute with the Sawbwa of Taungbaing, to whom they have never been dependent, they shifted to Mala-kang, somewhere near the present village of Man-mai (Humai) (or Ngaw-rean, according to Sailen Palaungs) and there settled. There were only three households then. Mongkwang or Maingkwin already had its kin or clan chieftain, and he sent emissaries to collect taxes from the three households, who refused to pay. A reference to the Sawbwa of Momeik led to one of the three Humai householders being appointed a kin and on his way back from Momeik he seized a Maingkwin woman and made her his wife. The story goes that on his way to Momeik the kin-elect met some women in the fields who called to him and asked him where he was bound. He replied he was going to Momeik to get a warrant of appointment as kin. The women treated this as a joke and one of them said: "Oh, very well, when you become kin I shall be your kin-kadaw or wife." Having obtained his appointment order he met this same woman on his way back and asked her to fulfil her promise, but she said she had only been joking and that she was a married woman. The new kin was not to be put off and seized her. As she struggled, a bamboo was passed through her cane waist-rings and she was carried away and compelled to go through the marriage ceremony. The enraged husband followed with a large gathering to make reprisals, but was bought off with three viss of silver and other presents and left his wife to share the position and honour of kin's lady. This led to Maingkwin women discarding waist-rings on marriage, but that practice has fallen into desuctude and they now wear them throughout life. The Humais increased rapidly and occupied the four present administrative tracts—Humai, Sailen, Pankha and Sauram. Later on a few, at the invitation of Kachins, also entered Thauktaung and formed the village of Supla. The Humais founded a tribe of Palaungs (? Amiameu) known as Hang Yeng in the land, but these they decimated and the only survivals of that people now live in the village of Tonklun and have assimilated Humai dress, language, etc., but up to date the village headman instead of being called a puche, hpawng or pak is known as a kin. In course of time there was a dispute as to succession between two sons (or an uncle and his nephew) named Haw Mun and Haw Sai and this dispute led to war and eventually ended in the Sawbwa of Momeik dividing the land, and giving the eastern part together with Sauram tract to Haw Mun and the western and larger part together with Pankha to Haw Sai, who had shifted his seat from Mala Kang or Ngaw-rean to Maukan. Haw Mun established his capital at Sailen. The parening who is over the Pankha tract is still subordinate to the kin of Humai, but for administrative reasons the parmong over the Sauram tract was about nine or ten years ago made independent of the kin of Sailen.

When some of the first settlers of this tract went to the bazaar at Manna they were met by the kin of Maingkwin who cut their ears off so as to identify them thereafter—'hu' in Shan being ear and 'mai' meaning to mark for purposes of identification. Thus the term Hu-mai is said to have come into existence. This story is related by Maingkwin and not

denied by the Humais.

Maingkwin.—A white tiger is said to have had four sons by a daughter of a king who reigned in the land known as Hu-Chio, Hu Kawng (Shan hu=source and Chio, the Irrawaddy. Hu-Chio, Hu Kawng, the source of the Irrawaddy and Nam Kawng probably same

APPENDICES. VII

Chinese ruler of Kwangtu Kwang Ching on the east. After awhile both these threw off their allegiance and jointly attacked Maingkwin and destroyed Chekan. The grandson of La Yi called Pamalan Long went down to Mandalay, after establishing a 'myo' (city) at Momeik and got an appointment of Sawbwa. Thereafter the rulers of Maingkwin became merely 'kangs' or kins. La Sai, the youngest of the four brothers who had remained behind, founded Mogaung (Mong-kawng).

Manmawk.—They state they came from Hu-kawng. Hu-kaung (or Sak-hkung Lunglü) a month's journey to the north-east.

Manjawp.—This was formerly a Palaung tract, but the present Kachin inhabitants squeezed the Palaungs out. Two villages, Long-prawng and Chan-pu, did exist up to 1898, but not caring for the swell of Kachins which was gradually increasing in intensity they cleared out and are said to have gone to Toke and Pangmon in Momeik. They belonged to the Rao-jawp clan. It is not known where they claim to have come from.

Manton.—Sap-Hkong Löng Lü in China is said to have been the original home.

The earth having been consumed by fire four Byammas came down from heaven and began eating earth. They are so much that they could not again ascend so began to play. Taking some earth one made the figure of a tiger, another of a pig, another of a monkey and the last of a tigress. Suddenly, by some mystical means, life entered into each figure and each proved to be of the feminine gender and was taken to wife by its maker. They all conceived and their offspring took the shape of men and women and Manton (and all other Palaungs in the Kodaung) are descendants of the tigress. Leaving Sap Hkong Longlüthey came down the Irrawaddy vià Möng Leng (Mohlaing) and settled north of the Shweli. [The kin that had his seat at Laikang (Chauktaung) appears to have been of this class.] A branch went to Taungbaing and finding it occupied moved back north and established Manton.

(Reading this together with the Maingkwin theory, I think this clan are descendants of the youngest of the four original brothers, La Sai).

Manpat.—These people say they came from the north-east and in any case not from Taungbaing. They state they cannot say more as they are accustomed to look forward—not backwards.

Manlon or Gammaw.—All they know is that they came from a place called 'Kawsang' in China. [Note.—I have been given a document which it is said will throw further light on the point, but have not had the time to decipher it as yet.]

Manpun.—The original home is said to be Lăpun Lăpawn in the north-east. They know nothing more of how they got to their present abode.

Yabon.—These people state they have been in Yabon for forty generations and more, and came originally from Western China.

Manyawn.—The Rao-yawn tribe that originally inhabited this tract were displaced by Kachins about a century ago. There is no trace of them now. The kin or clan chieftain

used to live at Manyawn village.

The three villages—Ngawsawmp, Hpaimai and Haiktang of the Haiktan clan—are more or less interlopers. They are an offshoot of the Rao-khai clan, the kin of which had his seat at Mankkai village near Maingkwin, a little to the west of the Kodaung and in Momeik State (proper). They have come in within the past 30 or 35 years and have assimilated most of the customs of the Manlon clan and in the notes below, except as regards dress, separate mention of them is not made.

#### CHAPTER IV.-LANGUAGE.

The language is unlike any other and absolutely different in sound to Shan, Burmese, Chinese or Kachin. It jars on the ear as it abounds in coarse, raucous sounds, often like the barking of a dog. The various clans in the Kodaung have little difficulty in speaking to and understanding each other, although the dialects of no two clans are alike. When they meet the Kalūrrs, Kwanhais, Tawngwas, Ngawnhawts and other clans including the Pales in the Tawngpeng State, Shan is more often than not resorted to as a medium of conversation. It is also used in intercourse with Shans, Kachins and Lishaws. The Humai people give the following story how that language first began to be used.

the following story how that language first began to be used.

The Sawbwa of Hsenwi had a wicked son. This boy, when eight years old, struck the son of a plebeian and destroyed one of his eyes. The Sawbwa offered compensation but the injured father declined to accept money and demanded an eye of the offender. Fearing violence the Sawbwa sent his son to the court at Mandalay, where he learnt Burmese. When grown up he left the palace and became a trader and in the course of his journeys came across three Palaung houses of the earliest Humai settlers in Malakang and he married one of their

women and settled down with them.

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Years later some officials came up from Momeik and demanded taxes-Rs. 2-8-from each of the three houses and an extra rupee as their personal fee. None of the Palaungs could understand and only when the Shan came home from work was their business explained and the taxes paid. Then the Palaungs pressed the Shan to become their chief, and he was in course of time made a kin or clan chieftain. The fact that their first kin was a Shan led to other Palaungs acquiring a knowledge of that language.

Other accounts, more prosaic than the above, attribute the almost general knowledge of Shan to the fact that some medium had to be found to converse with peoples of different

nationality.

#### CHAPTER V.—APPELLATION.

The term Palaung was first applied to the people by the Burmese. Among themselves they are known as Ta-ang (Humai), Da-ang (Maingkwin), La-eng (Manmawk), Ra-ang (Manpat and Manpun and Yabon), Da-eng (Manlon).

Every tribe or clan in the Kodaung declares it is Palaung, and the fact that Kalurrs or others in the Taungbaing think or state they are Pales causes them much amusement. They have all heard of Pales who live somewhere to the west of Nam-hsan and whose women wear broad cane rings round their waists and skirts with broad red stripes. Those nearer the Taungbaing border who know the Pales state they must resort to Shan when speaking to them. If there is any truth or correctness in the statement that the inhabitants of the Kodaung are Pales and not Palaungs it is certain that they are not aware of the fact—and I think the people must be given credit for knowing what they are, and that therefore the statement that they are not Palaungs must be dismissed as untrustworthy.

Here are two accounts of how the Burmese came to use the word Palaung.

In the time of Manisezu, King of Burma, a royal tour was made through Mogôk and The king travelled entirely by raft, by pointing his finger in any direction he had the power to create a water-way for the passage of the royal raft; and when necessary the newly created stream, against all the accepted laws of nature, would flow upwards over the highest mountains. On his arriving in the country where Palaungs dwelt he requisitioned some 'Kazun-ywet' and it was said none was obtainable. His own followers searched and found some and the king scolded the people. Some argument took place and the king ordered that that particular leaf should disappear from the land and snakes take its place. Thereafter snakes are said to have become unpleasantly numerous. Not satisfied, however, the king seized a number of the people and confined them (Burmese laung hta thi) in a huge

cistern or 'paung' and before releasing them made them swear that they would take the name of 'paung-laung' which gradually changed to Palaung.

The people from Manton tract say that they went to meet King Manisezu on his arrival near Loiseng in the Taungbaing. Residents from the Taungbaing were also in waiting.

Not knowing Burmers they called him by handing their know and calling out Kan tow San Not knowing Burmese they saluted him by bending their knees and calling out Kan taw San Alawng Mai rawt (thou hast arrived, oh 'Alaung' prince)! Not understanding what they said he turned to his retainers for information who said in Shan (Ma paung laung sang) meaning they are of no account, and this led to their being dubbed Paung-laung or Palaung. It is strange that these two accounts should agree in placing the time the term came into

existence to the period of King Mani Sezu.

#### CHAPTER VI.—PHYSICAL AND PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS.

The Palaung of the Kodaung is a well-built, well-fed, powerful-looking individual rather above the medium height. A loose jacket usually worn open down the front, a pair of baggy trousers with the fork sometimes trailing on the ground and a turban on his head do not tend to set off his fine physique. Compared with the male, the woman is short, rather below the average height of the Burmese woman, but she is of perfect stature. A heavily built or stout woman is seldom if ever met with. Her dress, too, though picturesque, is not beautiful. Gaiters, ties above the ankle and below the knee, a tight skirt, secured at the waist with a string and pulled up, only in front, to cover the breasts where it is held by another stringdiminutive jacket, always open down the front, a turban and sometimes also a hood over it, with numerous cane rings round the waist held in strands of ten or twelve by silver fastenings in front of the stomach complete her attire. She never wears shoes (except occasionally in Maingkwin) or sandals which the men are seldom without. The complexion of men and women is an olive brown-much the same as the Lower Burman and not near as light as the The women of the Maingkwin tract are somewhat lighter and better looking than those of the other tracts.

The man has a nice open face and I think he must be regarded as good looking. so many other coloured tribes the woman is far less beautiful, the average face being round with small eyes and nose, rather a big mouth. Both sexes wear their hair long and there are

many fine heads of hair to be seen.

The Palaung is brought up to pay the greatest respect to his priests, teachers, elders and rulers. Coupled with this respect he is naturally timid and this has led to his being regarded as a coward. I do not think, however, that this charge is justified, and on occasions have will show a constitute the could never have with There is no doubt, however, that he could never have withhe will show surprising bravery. stood the enveloping movements of the Kachin, but this can be partly accounted for by the fact that there never was much political collusion among them, each clan and sometimes

each village having to depend itself without other aid, whereas the Kachins, with a strangely shrewd knowledge of the strength of union, rallied together in large hodies. My opinion of the Palaung, as regards his money transactions, is that he deals fairly and that he is inclined to be liberal, but he is poor and needs to be careful. Where his religion is concerned a Palaung will readily subscribe his little all and to the stranger he is most hospitable. Every sort of violence is repulsive to him. He would seem to be reserved, but no sooner he finds that you are in a position to converse, he is quite affable and even friendly. This remark applies to women as well as men.

#### CHAPTER VII.—DWELLINGS AND VILLAGES.

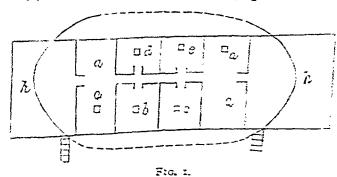
The village is invariably on the crown of a hill-top or along a ridge. Villages vary in size, from 2 to 50 houses, but the average number of houses in a village is 9 or 10. is always a main road passing through the village and in some cases a few branch roads. The houses lie on both sides of the roadway and their length is always parallel to it. never face or have their backs towards the road. In the case of a small house a single flight of stairs of four to six steps leads up to the house. It abuts in an open verandah. Larger houses have two, but never more than two, staircases. The second staircase would be at the opposite end of the house, also abutting on an open verandah. The houses of the different clans vary somewhat in the internal arrangement of the rooms and corridor, but the external appearance is the same always. The average breadth of the house is 22 to 26 feet; the length varies from 20 to 80 feet. The length increases as one travels from west. to east: those on the west side of the Kodaung being usually of a single household, while those in Sauram and Sailen contain three, four, five and sometimes six households, the length increasing with the number of households. The posts and framework are always of wood. The floors of bamboos split open, with the inner portion of knots removed, the walls and partitions of mat and the roof of thatch. The flooring is made so that the side where the steps come up will not be more than four or five feet off the ground. The further side may be 10 or 12 feet high. The space below the house is fenced in with bamboo and acts as a pen and stable for cattle and ponies. The rice is also pounded there. The roof meets the side walls, at 2 to 3½ feet from the floor. The front and back walls also rise up to the roof, but the internal partitions are not more than 6 feet high. The roof falls on both sides from a central ridge and is rounded off at both ends. The walls inside rafters and beams are usually shining black with thick soot, there being no openings to carry off the smoke.

(Note.—In Sailen and Sauram a few houses have a small window-like opening in the

roof.)

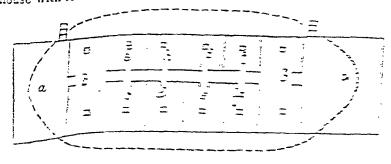
Below are sketches showing the internal divisions of some houses.

Humai clan.—(a) A house with two households.



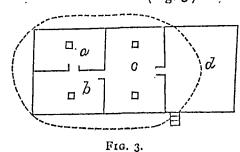
The cook and spare mone of [8]. e—The two householders' mome. 6—The cook and spare room of (5). The two needs

(6) A house with four households.



The little squares represent the fireplaces. The householders invariably stay in the rooms on the further side of the house, away from the stair cases. This custom is common to all tracts.

Maingkwin.—(a) A one-household house. (Fig. 3.)



(b) A two-household house. (Fig. 4.)

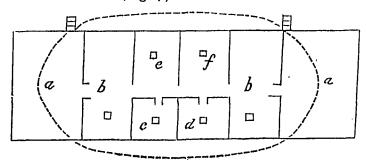


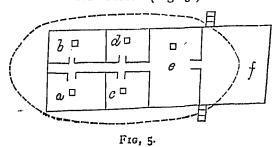
Fig. 4.

a a—Open verandahs.b b—Visitors' apartment.

c d—Householders' rooms.
c f—Householders' cook and spare rooms.

(c) If more households were present an additional pair of rooms for each would be made and the house lengthened at one end.

Manmawk.—(a) One-household house. (Fig. 5.)



a—Householders' room.
b—Householders' cook room.
c d—Householders' spare rooms.

e-Visitors' apartment.
 f-Open verandah.
 d and e-Need not be walled in with the central walling.

(b) The above house could be converted into a two-household house by simply having one side extended and a second visitors' apartment and open verandah added as follows:—

(Fig. 6.)

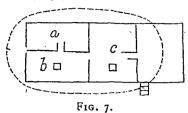
Fig. 6.

a a—Open verandahs.
b b-Visitors' apartments.

c d--Householders' rooms.
e f-Householders' spare and cook rooms.

The houses in Manton and Manpat circle are much the same as those in Maingkwin circle. Those in Manlon, Manpun and Yabon tracts are also the same, but when the households increase to more than two the house is increased by lateral extensions instead of at the ends. The householders' sleeping places also have no fireplaces in Manlon.

#### (a) A one-household house. (Fig 7.)

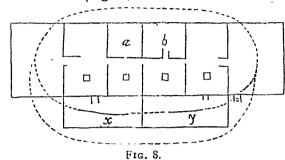


a-Housoholders' room.

b-Cook room.

c-Visitors room.

#### (a) A two-household house. (Fig. 8.)



a & b-Householders' sleeping rooms.

The lateral extensions, X and Y, would provide for a third and a fourth household when the roof would also be extended to take them in. Very often the extended roof is made even before the floor space has to be extended. The additional shelter is then utilized for pounding rice, storing paddy, etc.

In every other case paddy and vegetables that keep are stored in small granaries built near the house. Each householder having its own granary and its own pile of firewood.

Whenever the roadways in the village are liable to become swampy during the rains they are raised a little and paved with cobble stones.

There is a sayat in every village and often more than one. Most villages too boast a

There is a sayat in every village and often more than one. Most villages too boast a hpoongyi kyaung. These are often built of plank with plank roofs. Some in the Humai and Sailen tracts have roofs slanting upwards towards the ridges in Chinese fashion, and have tiled roofs. These were doubtless built with Chinese labour. The kyaungs in the Sauram tract, though replete with images, pictures, etc., are in almost every case devoid of hpoongyis. The roofs of some houses have V-shaped projections above them, formed by extending the two outer rafters some feet above the roof ridge or fixing boards to the rafters. These are never made to strengthen the roof as stated by Mr. Lowis, but are a mark of authority of the persons residing within the houses. They are chiefly confined to the houses of the kin stock but with the kin's permission village elders and headmen may have them, but they must neither be so long nor so ornamentally carved as those of the kin, which are usually 5 or 6 feet long. In some cases the kin's house is also distinguished by having two arms on one side and only one on the other, thus

The origin of this custom is not remembered.

#### CHAPTER VIII.—RELIGION.

The entire Palaung population is now Buddhist, and before that religion was adopted animism prevailed. The two centres from which Buddhism spread are Htākchet (or Ngawrean) in Humai and Chekan in Maingkwin. Shan-speaking Burmese hpoongyis are said to have come there from Möng Kyun, Möng Yun probably in Hsenwi and established religious schools and their teaching was readily accepted. According to one source this was 2,450 years ago. Each of these villages has an ancient pagoda which attracts devotees from many miles round. Occasional visits are undertaken to the shrines at Mandalay, Rangoon and even Ceylon. Very few indeed are aware to what nationality Buddha belonged and it is clear that the religion as practised is pure idolatry. The figure of Buddha, after it has obtained a formal blessing by a hpoongyi, is thereafter worshipped for its own sake and not as representing something else. Besides the Buddha each clan seems to have its own set of nats which have to be propitiated annually.

seems to have its own set of nats which have to be propitiated annually.

Mr. Lowis states on page 10 of his pamphlet "from early infancy onwards the education of the boys is in accordance with well-worn Buddhistic tradition." This is not true as regards any part of the Kodaung. Entry in the Kyaung is made between the ages of 6 and 10 years. It is left entirely to the will of the boy to enter or not and the parents have no say in the matter at all. It so inclined the boy sometimes walks off and informs the hopongy?

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that he has come to stay as a Kyaungtha or scholar. He may or may not accompany this intimation by a small offering of flowers. The parents later find the boy there and either acquiesce to his stay or persuade him to come home. This persuasion is made to test the child's resolution and not really to dissuade him from remaining at the kyaung. Should he elect to stay, nothing more is said, and the parents then make a formal offering of food and flowers to the priest and request him to see to the welfare of the child.

The percentage of boys that enter the kyaung as scholars varies from 20 to 30 per cent., and of these very few remain long enough to take the yellow robe and become "Koyins" or "San-sangs," so that only 2 or 3 per cent. of males enter the priesthood.

When the scholar has learned to read and write a little and got certain prayers off by

rote, he is eligible to be made a "Koyin" usually when he is 8 to 11 years old. Once the

rote, he is eligible to be made a "Royin" usually when he is o to 11 years old. Once the robe is donned, very few leave the kyaung, although this can be done at any time.

In addition to the child's own parents, godparents are invariably appointed by the hpoongyi, and it may happen that a specially fortunate koyin has half a dozen godfathers and as many godmothers. There is no objection to unmarried men and women standing in the place of a godparent and it does not follow because a man is godfather that his wife will be godmother. The post of godparent is considered honorable, because the godparent shares expenses with the own parents in all feasts connected with the child's advancement up the ecclesiastical ladder and is readily accepted: in fact there is competition advancement up the ecclesiastical ladder and is readily accepted; in fact there is competition

at times and the hpoongyi has to settle the rivalry.

The ceremony of becoming a koyin is usually made to coincide with some other festival, but may not be performed during the three months of fast, viz., the first waning of the 8th Shan month (Wazo) to the full-moon of the 11th Shan month (Thadingyut). It usually commences at midday, goes on all night and ends the following morning, but sometimes, if the parents and godparents can afford it, the feast lasts three days. In all cases the hpoongyi consults the boy's horoscope and selects a fortunate day for the rite, which is much the same as among the Burmese except that no money present is demanded by the priest. The boy or shin-laung is decked up in a hsü-lai-nguk or nat's coat, the htaing-pathein of the Burmese, with all available ornaments including bracelets and torques, a paper crown placed on his head, and is either put on a pony and carried on the backs of men and paraded through the village and round the kyaung, to the accompaniment of drums, cymbals and gongs, then enters the kyaung and is robed with the thingan, the hpoongyi selecting a title for him which is written on a piece of paper and placed on his head together with a spare robe. The parents and godparents feed the assembled priests and laity: the latter share the expenses with the former in all future advancement of the newlymade priest, but their responsibility and connection ends should he leave the kyaung. At 20 the novice is ready to be made a pazin or num sang and another ceremony is necessary. This too is much the same as that among the Burmese. Supported by two pazins—one on either side—he is questioned by a hpoongyi, usually in a thein. Are you a leper? Have you a wife now, are you in debt, have you your parents' approval to become a pazin, are you a fugitive from the law, etc., etc., and on these queries being answered in the expected manner the ritual is gone through. Two schools of religious faith are followed, one known as the Burmese and the other as the 'Yun.' In the former the senior pazin in a kyaung is known

as the hpoongyi, and there are no grades.

In the 'Yun' school there are seven grades, each successive grade being usually obtained after the lapse of a decade, and the cost of the ceremony increasing with each successive step; this period providing not only for an increase of religious knowledge on the part of the priest but enabling the parents and godparents to meet the expenses of the necessary ceremonies. The following table shows such advancements—the title, age and cost of each:—

	Title.				1	Usual age.	Approximate cost.
Koyin	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	9 to 12	10 to 30
	/ Hkanan	•••	,	•••		20	30 to 50
	Hkänan Pahlin Sami Pasäng Hku Sumlit Hpachän		•••	***	***	30	50 to 70 80
	Sami	•••		•••	•••	40	80
Pazin -	Pasang	•••	•••	•••	•••	50 60	100
	Hku		•••	•••		60	130 to 150
	Sumlit	•••	• • •	•••	•••	70	175
	Hnachán		•••	•••	•••	80	200

The cost which in Manpat is somewhat less than the other tracts, includes the feeding of assembled villagers and priests and buying various new outfits for the candidate in question as well as other priests.

Leaving the priesthood even for a day means the loss of all advancement and on re-entry to a kyzing one would have to begin at the hkanan grade again. The priest is spoken and addressed by the grade he has obtained, as Chan-Hkanan, Chan-Pahlin, Chan-Sumlit

The ceremony of raising is shortly as under. A small temporary kyaung is built in the jungle a hundred yards or so from the kyaung and the candidate goes and lives there for two or three days, while villagers collect and arrangements for feeding go on in the kyaung precincts. When all is ready a large body go to the temporary kyaung and invite the candidate to step on to an ornamental dais they have brought with them. This he does and the supporting hamisses are taised up and carried by as many men and women as can possibly An extension plateur, about 0 or 7 feet off the ground, has been run out from the front or The cardidate is lifted up three times (in Manpun seven times), the last time the top of the dais being brought on a level with the platform and the candidate steps from the latter on to the former, where he is met by a number of other priests. The

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senior priest then shouts out the newly obtained grade of the candidate which is caught up and repeated by the assemblage. The ceremony usually begins in the former, lasts all day and the following morning: a thank offering takes place at the kyaung and closes the matter,

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the hosongyi then delivering an address.

The priests, except during the lent, do not go round and beg. Early in the morning the women and a few of the elder men visit the kyaung carrying food and a bottle of water. The food is placed in trays which the hpoongyi places to receive it. Rice is placed in one tray and curry, done up in little leaf packets, in another. This suffices for the morning meal. The bottle of water is offered up with a prayer and then poured through the flooring.

About 8 A.M. the Kyaungthas go round and collect raw rice, curry stuffs and salt, and this is cooked by nuns, where there are any, or by the women of the village in rotation for the midday meal. After midday, fruits may be eaten, betel or 'kundauk' and tea partaken

of, but rice is avoided.

During the lent the hpoongyi in some parts begs from house to house, in others he merely goes as far as the entrance to the kyaung and is there met by the villagers. Cooked rice is then placed in his begging bowl, which is held in the left hand and curry into the tray covering of the bowl which is held in the right.

Seniority in priesthood goes by the consecutive number of lents spent in the priesthood, not by age. The years spent before one becomes a pazin do not count.

Twice a month on the full-moon and last day of the month, elderly people go to the kyaung and keep fast, the hypongyi delivers an address and most leave by noon, only a very few remaining till sunset,

On the other tast days, i.e., the 8th waxing and 8th waning, the fast is very seldom

observed.

When a koyin is made he receives the following requisites of his calling:—

1. Thingan or robe including-

(a) thinbaing or waist cloth, (b) cotton a-ka-thi or cloak, 8 feet by 4 feet,

(c) flannel e-ka-thi or cloak, 10 feet by 6 feet,

(d) a vest,(e) belt,

(f) a red and white badge.

2. A carpet. 3. A pillow.

4. A pair of sandal.

5. An umbrella.

6. A haversack.

7. A betel box.8. Goglet.

9. A cup.

10. A plate, dish and spoon.

When raised to a pazin in addition to a new set of above he receives:

1. A set of yellow velvet garments.

2. A begging bowl.

3. Fan

4. Filter.

Alpen stock.

ö. Rosary.

7. Razor.

8. A hide to sleep on.

At each successive step in the grade of pazin a new set of above requisites are provided, not only to the recipient of advancement, but to other hpoongy is present.

The clans that belong to the Burmese school are the Humais, Manmawk and Manlon. Note.—Pangtang village in Manlon follows the 'Yun' school. All the rest follow the Yun school, but in Manpat there are only five instead of seven grades, the Pahlin and Sami grades not being recognized. The expenses in connection with each grade also differ slightly.

In the Burmese school a pasin becomes a hpoongyi when he gets a kyaung and on such

occasions he is carried about and eventually placed on a golden dais.

#### CHAPTER IX.—BIRTH AND NAMING CEREMONIES.

Infanticide is not known. Children of either sex are welcomed, but males are preferred, as they are said to continue the family. Girl babies have one advantage in that a dowry is obtainable for them later on.

No preparations whatever are made in expectation of the birth of a child.

When it is successfully born the clothing for it is thought about. There are no professional nurses or midwives. Birth is given usually kneeling, sitting on the haunches, and sometimes between a sitting and standing position, but never lying. Two or three women sometimes between a sitting and standing position, but never lying. Two or three women friends are always in assistance, and while two support the back and shoulders, a third presses the stomach. Unlike the Burmese and Shans they do not strain on a rope or piece of cloth to ease parturition, except in Maingkwin, but once the child is born they do so; straining only the tail rope of a pack-bullock for the purpose till the after-birth is expelled. Should there be difficulty in giving birth a man pronounces some enchantment and breathes over a cup of cold water which is given to the woman. Sometimes two or three such drinks have to be given. In Yabon a little sap of the plantain tree is put into the water. This usually has the desired effect. There are not more than 2 or 3 per cent, of deaths due to child-birth. No sooner the child is away the woman's stomach is pressed and kept down by other women to expel the after-birth and if this fails a man is called and he presses her stomach with his feet.

The date, day and hour of the child's birth are mentally noted with a view to drawing up a horoscope later on. The naval cord is severed with a sharpened bamboo—never with a -without delay and in same places even before the after-birth has come away. father of the child is always near by, but no other men are present when a woman is giving

birth.

After birth the child is bathed in cold water everywhere except Yabon, where warm water is used, and the woman is likewise washed and cleaned and shifted a little. The afterbirth is placed in a bamboo receptacle and buried below the house.

The naval cord after being tied in a knot is dressed with a little sessamum oil and the scraping of sweat and dirt from the handle of a rice pounder. This practice of scraping the

rice pounder is also common among Burmese and Shans.

Smells of frying grease are avoided. The mother then lies near a fireplace for periods varying from four or five days to four or five months. This practice is said to ease pains in the head and giddiness. Even when the period of lying is prolonged, she usually goes and bathes five or six days after birth. Between 15 days and two months after the child is born a small offering of flowers and parched corn is made to the *hpoongyi* and he is requested to draw up a horoscope. This is done in case of every child. The horoscope merely records the year, month, date, day and hour of the child and is inscribed on a small piece of bamboo, 6 x 13 inches, with a stile, on the outer side of the bamboo. A little oil is then rubbed over the inscription which will be legible for a lifetime. This horoscope is taken and presented formally to the baby and the assembled elders call a blessing on it. The horoscope is kept carefully by the child's parents and is consulted later in case of illness, to select fortunate days for initiation into the priesthood and marriage. It is not used in connection with journeys or trade. Marriage is avoided in the month of birth. After a successful birth in the Humai and Maingkwin tracts an offering is made to the Hso mong nat. The naming ceremonies vary among different clans, and I had better give them clan by clan. (Wherever the Humai clan is referred to it must be taken, unless the context clearly indicates the contrary, that the four administrative tracts-Pankha, Sauram, Sailen, and Humai-are

#### Humai Clan.—There is a fixed order of names as under:—

				Son.	D	aughter.
ıst	Child	•••		A Nai	•••	Ye
	do.	•••	•••	A Nyi or Nyan	•••	I.
3rd	do.	***		A Lun	***	Am.
4th	do.	•••	•••	A Yai or A Sai	***	Ai.
5th	do.	***		A Ngo	•••	0.
ðth	do.	•••	•••	A Luk or Nga	•••	Uk.
· 7th	do.	***		A Chet		Et.
8th	do.	***	•••	A Pyet		Ip.
9th	do.	· •••		A Kan	•••	Not known.
	do.	•••		A Sip		I HOU KHOWII.

These are the regular names, but variations are permissible, and we find among males such names as La Sau, La San, La Mun, La Man, La Kyan, La Awng, and among females Ye Htawn, Ye San, Ye Mun, Ye Man, Ye Kyan and Ye Awng. The names of the 7th to 10th son, Chet, Pyet, Kan and Sip, simply follow the Shan numerals, all the other names have no meanings. The irregular names given at haphazard are not governed by the day of birth.

Maingkwin.—The first five sons are Ai, Ye, Sam, Yai, and Ngo and the 8th daughter U, otherwise the names are the same as in Humai. When the horoscope is drawn up the hoongyi at the same time gives a second name, which is governed sometimes by the month and sometimes by the day of birth.

The first four Shan months are Lün Sing, Lün Kam, Lün Hsam and Lün Hsee and the first son instead of being La Ai might be called Ai Sing, Ai Kam, Ai Hsam, Ai Hsee, etc.

If the day instead of the month were followed La Ai, if born on a-

```
... Ai Chya,
Monday, would be
                                                  ... Ai Sa,
                                       • • •
Tuesday,
                           • • •
                                                  ... Ai Yu,
Wednesday, "
                           • • •
                                                   ... Ai Pan,
Thursday, "
```

and so on.

Manmawk .- The Maingkwin method is followed in the regular order of names, but the alternate names as governed by the day of birth seem different. La Ai, if born on a-

```
... Eing Ta.
                                                  ...
         Sunday, would be
                                                              ... Kye Awng.
         Monday,
                                                  ...
                                                              ... Pyin Nya.
         Friday,
                                      . . .
Likewise the first girl Ye would, if born on a-
```

... Awng, Sunday, be ... Nyeing, ... Man, Monday, Friday,

and so on.

A person is known by either name, i.e., the one of serial order or the other. A man who has children or grandchildren is known as the father or grandfather of the eldest living child as Paw Ai, Paw La Sam, Pu Awng, Pu Nyaing, "Paw" being the word for father and "Pu" for grandfather. Women likewise are known as mothers or grand-mothers of their children and grandchildren as Mya Ai. Mya La Sam, Va Awng, Va Nyain mothers of their children and grandchildren as Mye Ai, Mye La Sam. Ya Awng. Ya Nvein.

Ya = Grandmother.Mye=Mother.

APPENDICES.

This custom is common to all tracts. The serial order follows the offspring of each woman, not of the man. Thus if a man has two wives, the first son of each would be La Ai. It has never been known that an eighth daughter was born to one woman.

Manton.—The method is the same as that followed by Maingkwin above, and besides the fact that no eighth daughter has been born a 9th and 10th son are also unknown. The alternate names following the day of birth also differ from Maingkwin and we have Ai Hsawng, Ai Hpya, Ai Yai, Ai Kaw, Ai Swi, Ai See, Ai U, Ai Maung and Ai Awng as alternatives for La Ai. Girls are called by the names in the regular serial order and not generally by alternate names.

Manpat and Manlon.—The method is the same as Manton above. An 8th and 9th and 10th sons have been born, however, to one woman.

Manpun and Yabon.—There is no serial order of names and the hpoongyi selects a suitable one and the child is called by this.

#### CHAPTER X .-- INFANCY, YOUTH AND MAIDENHOOD.

There is no ceremony in connection with earboring. Girls have both ears bored and men only one, the left; in exceptional cases the right ear, and sometimes even both ears. The boring takes place at any time between six months and ten years, but usually when the child is one or two years old. A black thread is first passed through and this is turned about. Then the hole is gradually enlarged by the insertion and addition of many straw stalks to receive the long silver ear-tubes worn usually 2 inch in diameter. Boys are tattooed when about 12 or 13 years old. The tattoo is more spacious than that of the Burmese and often extends from the ankles right up 8 or 10 inches above the waist. is done in black. Above this in the chest, shoulders, neck, face, forehead and even the top of the head are tattooed in red. The red tattoo is usually in the shape of various square and oblong 'inns' or charms. That in black is often tastefully executed, figures of fabulous birds, reptiles and animals, 'bilus' etc., being interspersed between filigree and lattice-work patterns, and the whole edged off with most elegant spear heads or spires. the tattoo men insert pieces of silver as large as a two-anna bit as charms under the skin and the oxidation causes small black patches. Girls are never tattooed. With the exception of the few boys that enter the kyaung, children of both sexes have no school; they stay at home and play, and in consequence the percentage of little persons is very small. At 9 or 10 years they begin accompanying their parents to the taungya, carrying water, minding vounger children and generally assisting them there, and by the time they are 17 or 18 a girl or boy is capable of entirely managing a taungya of his own.

About 15 the girls also begin weaving their skirts, but it takes four or five years before they can manage without help from their mothers.

#### CHAPTER XI.—COURTSHIP AND MARRIAGE.

The customs vary from clan to clan, and I had better describe a new, confining my remarks to the points of difference as regards others. Monogamy is general. Although polygamy is not prohibited, it is not indulged in, as experience has taught that peace is not advanced thereby. Polygamy is unknown.

Humai.—At 16 or 17, in case of males, and 15, in case of females, courtship is begun but marriage does not usually take place till the man is 20 or 22 and the girl about 18.

About 10-30 or 11 P.M., when he thinks the parents have fallen asleep, the youth approaches the girl's house, blowing a thin shrill melody on his flute or playing his lyre

He creeps up the steps, stealthily opens the door and enters. Should the door or floor creak, he makes a peculiar noise with his lips—"kyu, kyu," This is said to be done

out of respect to the elders.

Going to the cookroom, which is also the sleeping apartment of the children of the house, he pokes up the fire, wakes his sweetheart, calls her to the fire and converses with her there. These meetings are extended to the early hours of the morning, but at the second cock-crow, i.e., about 4 A.M., the youth must leave. It is said improprieties never occur in the house. Should their feelings overcome them they meet each other in the jungles

occur in the house. Should their rechings overcome them they meet each other in the jungles near the frungys during the day.

When intimately and friendship are sufficiently advanced, the youth offers a secret present, such as a silver box, a bangle, a chunam box, a reel of black thread, etc., in taken of his affection, and she gives him a present too, usually a kerchief woven by herself—a world of these being maintained. The girl is at liberty to accept these presents or pledym from as many youths as desire to emphasize their love, but once she has decided her minion sine returns those of the rejected lovers. The accepted youth must then steal her. Surpresed by a hardely friend he takes her one night to his own house and makes her over the first girls house and ask for her.

parents are unwilling, they make some excuse and the girl is immediately brought over by the three messengers and handed back, and at the same time they make a present of a rupee and two yards of cotton cloth to her parents, to show that no ill-feeling is entertained. girl's parents agree they ask if everything is ready for the marriage feast. If preparations are complete, the girl is brought back to her parent's house, a lucky day is selected-not more than eight or ten days distant - and the marriage takes place.

If, however, preparations are not complete, the girl continues to live in the house of her lover till a few days before the marriage and, as before, she is then returned to the house of her parents. Should this intervening period be for a month or two only the girl sleeps with the parents or sisters of her lover, while he sleeps in the visitors' apartment. But if, owing to inability of the boy's parents to complete arrangements early, and the period is protracted, a secret compact is entered into between the parents on both sides that the young couple should stay and sleep together till such time as money and provisions for the marriage are forthcoming when, as before, the girl is, just prior to the marriage, taken over to the house of her parents.

Marriage takes place in daylight, the ceremony lasting all day. A lucky day being selected by the *hpoongyi* or saya from the *kyansa* the three former messengers take a viss packet of wet tea to the girl's parents. This is divided into numerous tiny packets and distributed, by way of invitation, to all friends and relatives. The boy's parents issue similar invitations. The day having arrived friends and relatives collect in both houses and there is much going to and fro. Singing-but no instrumental music, excepting the flute-is

indulged in.

The three above-mentioned messengers open the ceremony by taking over a packet of wet tea, a packet of ngapi and a bunch of plantains to the bride's house. These are accepted: a small packet of tea is given in return and the price of the girl is asked. The messengers go back and an hour or so later return with the price of "milk drunk by the bride." This is Rs. 5 in the case of plebeians and Rs. 10 should the girl be of kin stock. The price of milk must always be paid first and is not included in the price of the girl. Her price is not fixed. Two or three male representatives are told off by the girl's parents to make the demand, as it is improper for the parents themselves to argue the point. The representatives, however, have been previously informed by the girl's parents of the amount they think the however, have been previously informed by the girl's parents of the amount they think the boy's parents can pay and they try and make a good bargain of it, usually demanding Rs. 200 in the first instance.

The groom's three messengers go backward and forward, bringing a fractional part of the price at each visit, when much bargaining takes place, one side demanding more, the other craving for a reduction. By the time the fifth or sixth visit is paid the sun is well to the west and both sides have come to some understanding, then a final visit at which the remaining balance of the price agreed on is brought over. The original demand of Rs. 200 has probably come down to Rs. 50 or Rs. 100. At the final visit the three messengers are accompanied by a whole host from the groom's house, the groom, but not his parents, also going over. The delighted parents of the bride cry out and ask which young man is their son-in-law, and on catching sight of him throw a white cloth over his head. The bride is led out and every person from the house joins in swelling the previous host, and the whole lot repair to the groom's house; the bride's girl friends carrying her belongings in baskets. Each carrier must receive a rupee and a word or so of author cloth as her fee but the creating that carrier must receive a rupee and a yard or so of cotton cloth as her fee, but the one that carries a mat (used to lie on) gets only 8 annas.

It is now quite 7 or 8 P.M. Blessings are showered on the heads of the young couple by the various elders—health, wealth, strength—and a large family are besought and after much

friendly gossip the meeting disperses.

Some of the bride's friends remain with her the first night and the groom has to go and

sleep in the visitors' apartment and sometimes in another house.

Marriage takes place with Palaungs of any other tribe, but intermarriages with other is very rare. There have been a few cases in which Chinamen have taken Palaung races is very rare. women, but Palaung men have never married Chinese women. In a few cases Palaung men have married Shan women and vice versā. Such cases usually results in the wife adopting the husband's nationality, but the opposite effect too is not unknown. Only in one case did a Kachin marry a Palaung woman and adopted Palaung nationality.

The groom's parents bear all the expenses of the marriage and the food; tea and fruit

distributed in the bride's house is provided by the groom.

After marriage a small part of the cookroom is walled off as a temporary sleeping apartment for the new couple until some permanent arrangement by extension or expansion of the house is made. The groom must depend on his friends for this as he is too modest to do it for himself.

Maingkwin.-Courtship is much the same as in Humai, but the young man usually accompanies the secret pledge with a small sum of money, say Rs. 5, which he agrees

to forfeit should he prove unfaithful.

The girl is not stolen, but both parties inform their respective parents of their intentions, and on receiving approval, which is almost invariably accorded, two old men are sent by the boy's parents to the girl's house with a small haversack, a little wet tea, some green tobacco and yams (peing-u) and a 'pyi' basket. The presents are accepted, but the haversack and 'pyi' basket are returned. The groom then prepares collecting food, etc., and when the lucky day has been selected and friends invited, the marriage takes place. Unlike the Humais, the Rao-kwangs begin the ceremony about 5 P.M.; it goes on all night and finishes at daybreak..

APPENDICES.

The two old messengers carrying the haversack and 'pyi' basket first take over Rs. 3 as the price of milk, then on subsequent visits Rs. 5 for the relatives of the bride residing with her, then Rs. 10 or 12 for all other relatives, then Rs. 2 from the village elders and last of all, in various small instalments, the price of the girl. The customary price is Rs. 50, but sometimes more, sometimes less, is paid and accepted.

Manmawk.—Courtship and marriage is the same as in Maingkwin, but marriage takes

place in the day, as among the Humais.

The messengers selected to go to the girl's house are two old women, not men. At first they take over a small packet of tea and acceptation of this is tantamount to acquiescence in the proposal, otherwise some excuse is made and the present declined. If accepted the two old women the following day bring two viss each of ngapi, salt, wet tea and tobacco. The girl's parents invites a tew friend to witness this presentation. The present is divided into minute packets and sent out as invitation to all friends and relatives to the marriage which takes place within eight or ten days.

The price of milk is Rs. 7 and the price of the girl varies from Rs. 40 to Rs. 200 accord-

ing to the circumstances of the bachelor's parents.

At the close of the marriage ceremony, when the bride arrives at the house of the groom, her parents formally present her to the groom's parents with a packet of wet tea and beg the latter to take good care of her in future. Whenever, in this as in other tracts, the bride lives in a separate village to that of the groom the marriage takes place in the bride's village, the groom selecting another house where he and his parents put up. After marriage the bride amongst all clans invariably goes and lives in her husband's house.

Intermarriage with Kachins has never occurred and with Shans very rarely.

In this as in other tracts should the parents of either side object to the match it may be broken off, but if the young people persist the parents must give way or they elope. On, their return the ceremony of marriage is gone through, as if nothing had occurred.

messengers engaged by the groom's side, the bride's parents send two women messengers at the commencement of the marriage bearing a skirt, a pair of black gaiters, a jacket, a cover-let and a turban from the groom's parents. In addition to the day a lucky house has to be selected for the commencement of the marriage; this is either in the morning or evening, so that the ceremony lasts all day in the former case and all night in the latter.

The first present taken by the groom's two women messengers is two bundles of plantains, two packets of wet tea and a rupee. All instalments of money are taken in a 'pyi'

basket, at the bottom of which, outside, a two-anna piece is stuck with a little wax.

First the price of milk which is only Rs. 1-2, then Rs. 6-4-0 for all the bride's relatives and then the price of the girl in various instalments, the price eventually hinging on the bargaining abilities of the messengers on both sides. An amicable solution is always arrived at.

After the white cloth or turban is thrown over the groom's head, he and the bride 'kadaw' (pay respects on their knees) to the parents of the bride and to the elders.

When the procession moves to the groom's house the bride's parents do not follow, but depute some elders to hand her over to the parents of the groom. Then the new couple again 'kadaw' to all elders present and to the groom's parents.

Manpat.—The custom is the same as that in Manton with the exception that no soonerdo the girl's parents agree to the match, the girl goes to the boy's house and lives two or three days with him and then returns. The price of the girl is fixed at Rs. 11-4-0, the price of milk to the mother Rs. 2; the father for his paternity Rs. 2 and relatives are bought off with pice.

The ceremony takes place either by day or night as decided by the hoongyi according

to certain fixed rules of procedure regulating propitious and unpropitious hours.

After marriage the young couple live in one side of the visitors' room which is enclosed for them, but here, as elsewhere, on a second son marrying, the first moves into a new house. And if before marriage the girl conceives and the man hesitates about marrying her, she just walks over and lives with him and forces him into marriage. Should he still object he must pay a heavy fine—in Manton this is Rs. 150 to the parents, Rs. 15 for the kin or village puche, Rs. 2 and a viss of dry fish for the village elders.

In Manpat it is less, in Manpun Rs. 80 to the parents and Rs. 20 for the village elders,

and in other tracts according to custom.

Manlon.—On the young man blowing his reed and reaching the steps of the house of his lover, he attracts her by cracking the nails of his thumb and forefinger together. The girl comes out and they go to the granary, jungle or elsewhere to gossip. The man must not enter her house, or detain her long. Should any misbehaviour occur, the girl informs her parents, where the man must take her, or pay a fine of Rs. 100 to the parents and Rs. 15 for an offering to the nats as a purificatory offering. Whatever is left of the Rs. 15 after the offering is appropriated by the village headman.

In other cases the courtship extends for one or two years, more so if the parties are young. They exchange presents which are returned should the courtship be broken off.

When the man is ready he gives the girl a small packet of tea and this she shows to her mother, who shows it to her husband. If they object the girl returns the packet and the engagement should be broken off. But if the young man persists, the girl's parents give way, and again the tea is presented and accepted. After this the way is clear,

Two male messengers go from the groom taking a packet of tea and formally asking for her hand. This is agreed to and a fortunate day is selected at the earliest possible date. The ceremony takes place at night, as in Maingkwin, commencing after dinner about 8 or 9 P.M. The two aforesaid messengers take the various presents-Rs. 3 for milk of the mother, annas 8 for the village headman, annas 8 for elders, then the bride's price. It is customary to pay Rs. 100 for the bride, though if the man be impecunious less is accepted. At times Rs. 150 or more is given, but this is mere bluff and the excess over Rs. 100 is always returned to the groom.

Towards dawn when the last instalment is paid, a body of men leaves the groom's house carrying plantains. Another body from the bride's house blocks its way but, being bribed with plantains, allows it to pass. On coming out with the girl the first party is again stopped and a distribution of small haversacks is demanded before exit is permitted. For seven days the bride and bridegroom have to manage without any arrangements being made for them. After that an extension of the house is made and they then go over and pay their respects to the bride's parents, who give them a blessing and sometimes the more substantial present

of a buffalo or bull.

Rs. 50.

Marriage with women of other clans is not countenanced. If the young man persists, he is told to go and live with his wife, as the nats of Manlon do not look with favour on such unions. Men from other clans may take women from Manlon, but in that case must come and live in Manlon and live properly with their wives, otherwise the Hsö möng nat will soon drive them away.

Manpun.—The custom is much the same as that in Manton, but the different presents vary a little.

The price of milk is Rs. 2 and relatives are bought off individually—Re. 1 to each near

There has been no intermarriage

one and a two-anna bit or so to others.

with Shans or Kachins. Yabon.—The Manmawk custom is followed. The customary price of the bride is

#### CHAPTER XII.—Consanguinity.

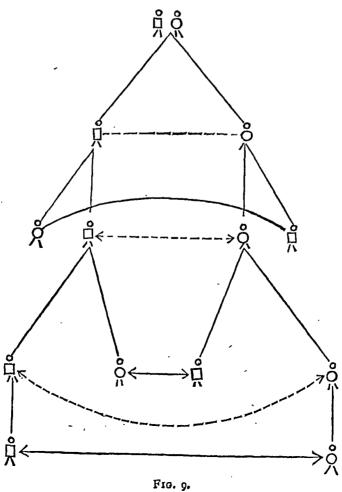
A man may not marry his mother, daughter or his brother's or sister's daughter, his paternal uncle's daughter or his aunt.

A woman does not marry her father, brother, son, uncle, nephew and certain cousins.

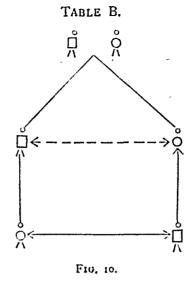
For further relationships see tables attached. (Figs. 9 to 13.)

Wives are obtained from Yabon but no other clans.

TABLE A.—HÜMAI.



In this as in all tables the male is shown as  $\mathring{\Omega}$  and the female as  $\mathring{\Omega}$ . Where marriage is permissible the man and woman are joined by a continuous line —— and where marriage is not permissible by a dotted line — — — — — — (Fig. 10.)



The children of these first cousins could also marry and the first and second cousins could also marry. (Fig. 11.)

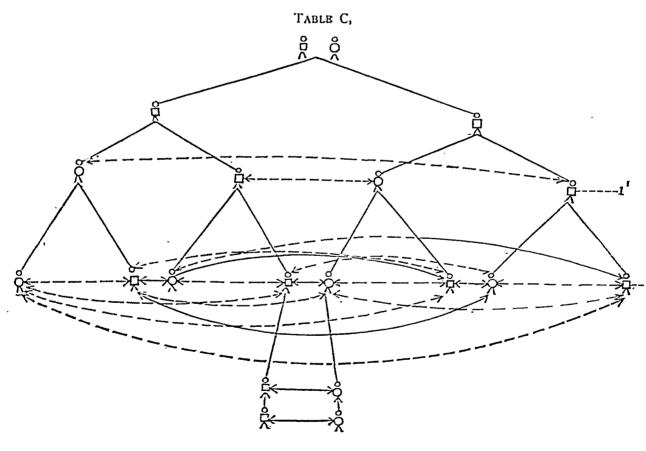
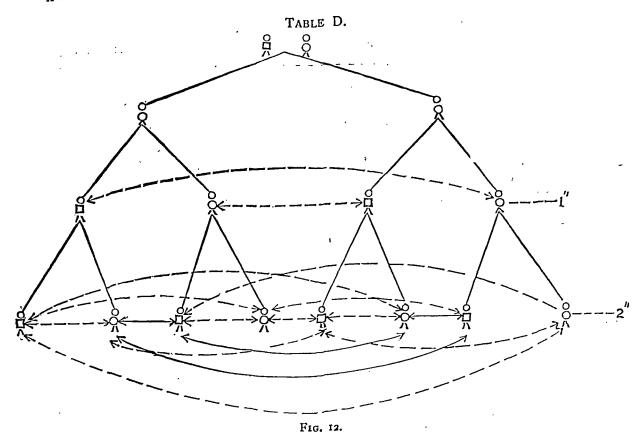
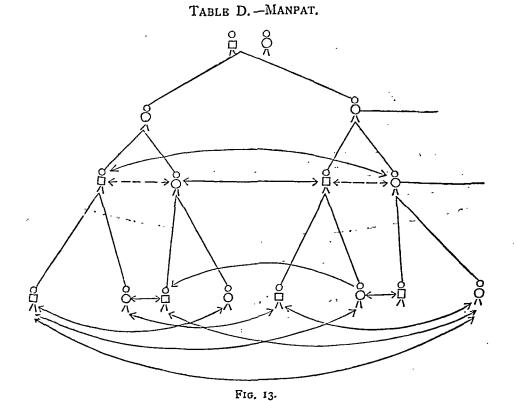


Fig. 11.



All the other clans agree with the above except Manpat which differs as regards Table D only, allowing marriage with the paternal aunts, daughter, and Yabon as regards Table A. The latter would not permit marriage of the third cousins, but would withdraw objection in case of fourth cousins.

The former does not consider there is any relationship between the children or grand-children of two sisters and free marriage between them is permitted. (Fig. 13.)



#### CHAPTER XIII.—DISEASE AND ILLNESS.

When illness occurs the 'Zada' or horoscope is consulted by a saya or horoscope, who suggests a remedy by consulting his 'Kyan-sa' which appears to be a complete "Enquire within upon everything." The 'Kyan-sa' is a book made of Shan paper, strengthened with varnish and folds up like a fan. Both sides are written on. On the

first space or page a cycle of 60 is written in six horizontal lines, ten figures in each line. The age of every person can be readily reckoned. Thus the present year is 13. always has the year of birth. Suppose a girl was born in the year 58, she would be 15 years of age now, two years from last cycle and 13 of this. An old man born in the year 2 would be 71 years old. This cycle also serves as an index for the book. A person of 25 years age is ill. The cycle suggests the page of the book to be referred to and there various remedies are written. These are usually in the form of offerings, e.g., a miniature bridge should be made, the branch of the banyan tree raised by a support, or an offering made to the kyaung or nats or a small sand pageda erected. The bridge might consist of three bamboos with a round bamboo basket filled with sand placed at each corner and a small paper flag planted in each. Owing to the frequency of supporting the branches of a banyan tree some trees will be seen with a hundred or more posts under it, just long enough to reach the lower branches.

The offerings to the kyaung usually consist of home-made candles, paper flags and balls of parched rice, the number of each being the same as the number of years of the

person diseased.

An offering to the house nat would likely take the shape of two fishes, two flasks of water, two flags, two small bunches of flowers-while one given to the Hsö möng nat would be ten of each and ten small lumps of wet tea in addition.

A few herbal medicines are known, but there are no real doctors.

Should illness be general the entire village would join in a big offering at the shrine of the Hsö möng nat, or perhaps make a big bridge in the centre of the village where it would be of no practical use and constitute an obstacle. In case of other calamities, such as cattle disease, worry by tigers, an offering is made to the nat of the land.

In some illnesses which are thought to be due to persons possessing the evil eye,

"inns" or charms are drawn on paper; the paper is then folded and burnt, and should the

patient recover it is firmly believed that the evil spirit has been overcome.

#### CHAPTER XIV.—INHERITANCE.

When a man dies his widow elects to stay with her parents-in-law or return to her own parents. In either case she continues to be the property of the husband's parents or relatives and whenever she marries they receive half of the price originally paid for her from her second husband who thereafter owns her, but her choice of a new husband is free. Should she marry a brother of a first husband-a not usual proceeding—a small present suffices to be given to her parents. So long as she does not marry outside the deceased husband's family she continues to enjoy the use of her deceased husband's property together with the children if there are any and who have not gone out and made households of their own. Should they have left before the father's death, or leave after it, they are not entitled to anything necessarily, but an amicable settlement is always arrived at by aid of elders. The widow must give up everything should she remarry outside the family. There are no regular rules as to the division of the property, and as a matter of fact no division usually takes place.

The deceased husband's relatives are entitled to possession of all the children who have not left the family roof tree by going out making households of their own, although the mother is allowed to retain infants even should she shift to her own parent's house. Should such an infant girl grow up and marry, the deceased husband's relatives usually allow

the mother a fair proportion of her price.

If both parents die the children still in the house inherit and if too young to look after their own interests, this is done by the grandparents and relatives, but those children who have married and gone out get nothing.

The property of an unmarried man or woman would go to the relations.

Should a person die and there be no widow, children, or relatives his property goes to the kyaung after the funeral expenses have been deducted.

In Manton it is said only male children inherit.

Should the deceased leave debts those persons who would be entitled to inherit are responsible for the payment.

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CHAPTO : XV -- D ATH AND BURIAL.

The custom of placing ferry dues in the mouth or on the chest is everywhere observed. The sum varies from two annas to a rupee and at times a precious stone is placed. It is usual to make and keep ready coffins for hpoongy is and aged persons.

Cremation is reserved for the priesthood, hpothudaws, nuns, kins and their wives and blood relations, persons who attain a great age, and in some parts also to all village

headmen and other officials and their wives.

In Manpat alone cremation is confined to wearers of the yellow robe and even kins and hpothudaws are buried. Although cremation is allowed the corpses of kins, etc., are never kept more than seven days, those of hpothudaws and nuns two or three months, and

only those of hpoongyis up to a year or more.

On the death of a hoongyi his body is washed and head shaved. The coffin being lined with layers of sand, lime, pepper, corn and powdered charcoal, the corpse is then placed in it and covered with a thingan. Some more lime placed over it, and the lid usually running in a slide placed in position and the opening secured with sticky rice and paper, or lac or oil and 'poonyet.' The cossin is then taken out and placed in the 'neikban' kyaung, a small temporary structure made of bamboo and thatch and old people keep watch. Should the period of watching extend many months four figures of 'bilus' are made and placed on each corner of the coffin to keep watch so as to give some assistance and respite to the human watchers and prevent the deceased from turning into an evil spirit. The coffin, especially if the hpoongyi is an old man, is often beautifully ornamented with mosaic work in gold and glasses of many colours. The corpse dries inside the coffin. At times a bamboo tube is fixed into it to carry off exuding liquid, the lower end of the tube being 2 or 3 feet under ground. In Yabon there is the extraordinary procedure of having a long upward bamboo tube running through the roof to carry off gases. The rosary and sometimes the alpen stock is always placed beside the hpoongyi's body, but no other implements. When the time for cremation arrives the lid is slid out, the corpse taken out, washed and replaced, the coffin closed and placed on top of the pyre where it is split open lengthwise with an axe so as to facilitate its consummation by the fire.

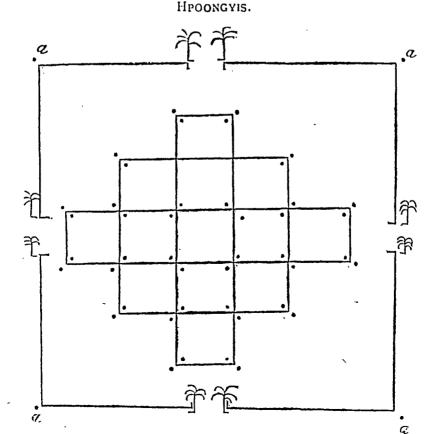
The fire is always applied to the pyre of priests by means of rockets which rush into it

from a distance of 20 or 30 feet.

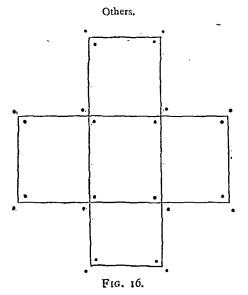
The start of the fire is the occasion of much rejoicing, music and singing.

Other pyres, viz., those of kins nuns, etc., are set fire to by hand and not by rockets.

The pyre for a hpoongyi is much grander than those for other persons and it is surrounded by a 'Yazamat' or ornamental bamboo railing having four openings-each of which is cut off by the planting of plantain trees on its sides and from four very high poles at each corner is suspended a white cloth canopy on the lower side of which the figure of a spider is drawn in black. This figure is there to catch up any noisome odour and prevent it annoying the nats who live in the sky. Below I give a ground sketch of the pyre for a hpoongyi and that for other persons. On the ground from the pyre are spread first sand, then dry leaves and then a thingan. (Fig. 15.)



The small dots indicate where posts are planted to enclose the suel for the pyre. At each crossing there are two posts. (Fig. 16.)



The pyre for hpoongy is is about 41 feet high, the fuel being laid in nine cross layers. Other pyres have only five or seven layers and are not so high. Cremation among the Humais is always done in the forenoon and next day the bones are collected and put into an earthen pot. The pot is covered but not buried, and in the case of hpoongy is a gilded post 3 or 4 feet high is planted near it. Although the cemetery is to the west of the village hpoongyi may be cremated and his ashes buried in other directions.

Sometimes for two or three days prior to cremation the coffin of a senior hpoongyi is put on a huge wheel-less structure—a boat-like cart—the two sides of the framework being in the shape of two nagas or serpents with both their heads pointed in one direction and their tails in the opposite, while a gaily coloured pyatthat occupies the body or centre. The 'hpoongyibyan' does not coincide with the date of any other feast. It is usually held in Tabodwe or Tabaung when the peasantry have a little leisure.

Maingkwin.—When the corpse of a hpoongyi is placed in its coffin it is usual to place

a little saltpetre and lime in the mouth. Also a two-anna bit as ferry dues.

The canopy above the fire is stretched on a bamboo framework and this framework is suspended from a bending bamboo. A nat is drawn on the canopy, not a spider. Unlike Humai 'Yazamats' are placed round the pyre of hpothudaws and nuns as well as hpoongyis and the number of cross layers of firewood in the case of a hpoongyi is from ten to sixteen according to his rank, while kins, hpothudaws, nuns and others have a lesser number.

The pyres of kins, hpothudaws and nuns as well as those of hpoongys are set in fire by ets. With the exception of hpoongyis' corpses, even of kins, nuns and hpothudaws are

not kept more than three or four days.

Bones are collected seven days after cremation, put in a pot and the pot placed open on the ground. As in Humai a gilt post is erected near the bones of a hoongyi.

Manmawk.—Besides ferry dues it is customary to place some food and 'kundauk'

(jungle bean which takes the place of betel) near the corpse. Besides the rosary a hpoongyi has his alpen stock placed in his coffin. Outside the priesthood cremation is reserved for the kin and elders of the kin stock. Village officials, elders, etc., are buried. The funeral pyre is slightly different in size and shape to that of Humai; the canopy is the same.

Manlon.—In the case of children under ten years no 'ferry dues' are put in the mouth,

as it is thought they do not travel the same route as others.

The ferry dues for elder people is sometimes placed in the pawa or coat pocket. It is meant to pay either "ferry" or "kin" dues (octroi) in the land of nats and only a single demand is expected to be made. (Fig. 17.)

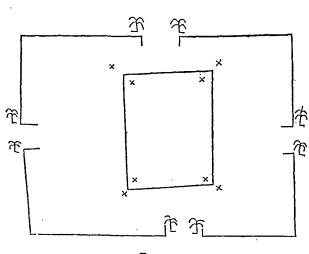


FIG. 17.

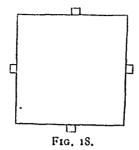
In the case of a hpoongyi besides shaving the head, it is plastered with gold paper and a little mercury is placed in the mouth. The pyre is built up in the shape of a rectangle, enclosed by eight posts,

An altar of 3 or 4 feet of sand is piled up against one side of the pyre, the fuel being 6 or 8 feet high. The canopy is suspended as in Maingkwin, has the figure of a 'bilu' drawn under it. After the crema-tion the canopy or 'peiktan' is examined to see if there are any The more holes small holes in it. there are the better. They are a sign that the soul or spirit of the person has ascended to the land of the nats. If there are no holes it indicates that the spirit is still on

These holes are not caused by the fire as the canopy is out of reach of the flames. Hpothudaws and nuns also get canopies and examination has shown that in their cases the small holes never appear. They also get 'yazamats', but the kin gets neither yazamat nor canopy. Cremations are performed in the afternoon.

The bones of cremated persons are placed in a pot, that of a hpoongyi in a thabeik or alms bowl, and buried a foot or so in the ground, together with some boiled rice, money, and sometimes precious stones. A gilded post is erected in the case of kins as well as The latter sometimes have a pagoda built over their bones. (Fig. 18.)

Manpat.—Same as Manlon but the four posts securing the pyre are on the sides thus—



Manlon.—The canopy is suspended from four corner posts as in Hümai, but the shape of the pyre is rectangular and the plantain trees are at the four corners. (Fig. 19.)

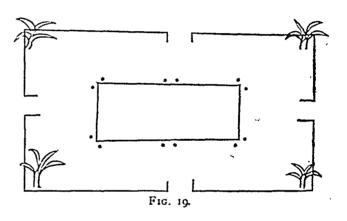
The pyre is secured by 12 posts. The number of layers of firewood in the case of all

males is eight, while that of females is nine.

Inside the coffin of hpoongyis no lime is placed and the corpse is placed naked and is not covered with the thingan which is placed over the coffin.

When the coffin is placed on the pyre and split open, it is invert-The contents toppled out and covered with the empty coffin.

Only the hpoongyis' pyres are surrounded by a yazamat. The kin's pyre is also fired by rockets, but he does not get a gilded post placed near his ashes. Cremation always takes place in the evening. Only the bones of hooongyis and kins are collected and placed in pots and buried. Those of elders are just left when the pyre is about to be set on fire. A hpoongyi delivers an address, not a word of which is understood by the people.



Manpun.—The corpses of koyins are kept only three or four days, while those of nuns and hpothudius seven days. Should no mercury be obtainable some oil is poured into the mouths of the corpses of hpoongyis. Never mind how long the body is kept at least one human watcher is said to be present in addition to the four 'bilus'. The shape of the hpoongyi's pyre is the same as that of the Hümai kin.

Yabon.—In the case of hpoongyi a thingan is first spread on the ground, sand placed over this and the firewood then piled on it. The bones of hpoongyis are collected a day or two later, placed in a pot and buried, and sometimes a 'ku' or masonry cave erected over it in addition to the gilded post.

The honer of law alders who are collected and put in a cloth bag and the bag.

The bones of lay elders when cremated are collected and put in a cloth bag and the bag placed in a hole in the ground. Touching this bag a bamboo containing water is placed, the lowest knot being bored with a tiny hole, so that the water may slowly penetrate and moisten the bag, the idea being that the spirit of the deceased may be refreshed in the next incarnation.

Only ashes and charcoal are placed in the coffins of hpoongy is which usually are not

kept more than three months. Like the Burmese some Palaungs believe that the spirits of deceased persons remain in the house seven days after death, walking about the house and sitting down and sharing the

Hearing that the spirits of infants returned to drink milk people in Manpun spread ashes on a Sagaw (bamboo tray) and place it near the doorstep, but no footprints were ever found. The Burmese, it is well known, declare that if ashes are spread near the meals with those still living threshold footsteps, pointing in an outward direction, will be found in the seventh morning

after death, that being the time when the spirit takes its departure.

A curious custom of keeping a vigil when a hooongyi leaves a kyaung prevails in Maingkwin and I believe is common in all parts. The departing hooongyi doffs his robes, Maingkwin and I believe is common in an party. The departing npoongyt doffs his robes, puts on ordinary clothing and remains in the kyaung for seven days. He is visited by his puts on ordinary clothing and remains in the kyaung for seven days. He is visited by his puts on ordinary clothing and remains in the kyaung by his parents and godfriends. The seventh night food is prepared in the kyaung by his parents and godfriends. The seventh night food is prepared in the kyaung by his parents and godfriends. The seventh night food is prepared in the kyaung for seven days. He is visited by his puts on ordinary clothing and remains in the kyaung for seven days. He is visited by his puts on ordinary clothing and remains in the kyaung for seven days. He is visited by his parents and godfriends. The seventh night food is prepared in the kyaung by his parents and godfriends. The seventh night food is prepared in the kyaung for seven days. He is visited by his parents and godfriends. The seventh night food is prepared in the kyaung by his parents and godfriends. The seventh night food is prepared in the kyaung by his parents and godfriends. The seventh night food is prepared in the kyaung by his parents and godfriends. xxvi APPENDICES.

as Klum-tawp. The vigil is called a lak-le-htak meaning a vigil of departure from a zvaung while the other is the death-vigil lak-le-tai. After the feast the exhecongyi leaves the kyaung. In all tracts during the long watch over a hecongyi the young people often come of a night and relieve the elders by dancing and singing with music from gongs, cymbals, drums and flutes.

#### CHAPTER XVI.—Occupations and Agriculture.

Tea is cultivated in Maingkwin, Manlon and Yabon and to a lesser extent in Manmawk,

Manton and Manpun tracts. The cultivation is just beginning in the Humai tracts.

Paddy is the chief object of cultivation. Wherever the configuration of the land permits and a stream is present to lend its aid to irrigation, terrace fields are formed, otherwise taungya is the sole resort. The yield in terrace fields varies from ten to thirty-five fold; in taungya it is twenty to forty and fifty fold. Cotton is cultivated near the banks of the Shweli. Ponies are bred but mostly of the undersized scraggy variety. There are a few blacksmiths whose labours are confined to the repairs of agricultural implements but nowhere are they able to cast a ploughshare, which must wait the regular arrival ments but nowhere are they able to cast a ploughshare, which must wait the regular arrival of itinerant Chinese. In Chekan (Maingkwin) there is a gunsmith who can do anything connected with the matchlock or touchhole gun. In almost every tract there is one or perhaps two silversmiths who are able to turn out the ordinary trinkets and ornaments worn by the women. There are no goldsmiths. Petty trade is engaged in by a few who buy from Shans at the regular bazaars in Namkhan, Monkhat (Humai), Mama (Maingkwin) and Manton and retail locally. The women invariably weather own skirts, gaiters, kerchiefs and haversacks and sometimes saungs (coverlets) and in Manmawk a rough cloth of which the trousers and jackets are made for men, but all other articles of clothing are purchased.

In addition to paddy of which there are a large number of varieties, beans, peas, sessamum, maize, tobacco, hemp, pumpkins, and gourds, hkan-ya (a small seed used in place of paddy), yams, plantains, sweet limes, guavas, papayas, cucumbers, chillies, peaches, damsons, pinapples, the-gyo-kyi-thi and jack are cultivated. The seeds of white pumpkins, peas and cucumbers are sometimes mixed up with paddy and planted together. Cattle and buffaloes and Humai pigs and fowls are also bred for sale as well as for use. In other tracts fowls are kept, but in some, like Manpat only cocks. Opium is not grown. A few small fish are caught in the hill streams. Betel will not grow and the betel nut, though it grows, will not fruit and the people hunt the jungles for the "kundauk" bean instead. This smells and tastes much like betel but is more pungent. Rice is taken down to Momeik, into Hsenwi, Molo and Nam-kain in pack bullocks for sale, but the quantity is not great. Sometimes a bullock caravan visits Bhamo taking tea for sale and bringing back salt and preserved fish, but these two necessary articles of food are chiefly supplied by Shans and Kachins who bring it from Bhamo on pack-bullocks and in the case of Shans by male carriers. A man is able to

carry two baskets, each of 10 viss.

The greater part of the tea grown finds its way to Molo, whence it is rafted down the Shweli and Irrawaddy. This is wet tea. A small quantity is taken to Momeik. There is

practically no trade in dry tea.

Tea .- A patch of jungle on a hill slope is cleared, but the larger trees are left to give shelter to the young plants. The seeds are gathered about November and sown singly, about 15 feet apart and 8 or 10 inches deep in February. The jungle is then cut and when dry, fired about April. The burning process does not injure the buried seeds but facilitates germination. They sprout about June or July. Next year all failures are filled up with fresh plantings. The growth is slow. When the young plants are a foot or two high all the big trees are girdled and later on felled and removed. The falling trees do little permanent damage. Thereafter the trees look after themselves. There is no pruning but

the jungle is kept down between the trees.

Sometimes the seeds are planted in a nursery and the trees planted out when a foot Ligh on ground previously cleared and burnt. Plucking commences when the plants are three or four years old and takes place three times a year. Once in the 5th or 6th Shan month (about April or May), again in the 7th or 8th month and lastly in the 9th or 10th months, the interval being two months between each picking. Only tender leaves are gathered. The picking begins early in the morning and is completed by noon or 1 P.M., when the leaves are immediately steamed and kneaded. If dry tea is contemplated the leaves are then expected to the sun for four or five days. Further drying takes place by placing near fire and exemplated it is again sun dried. The price is from annas 12 to Re. 1 per viss. The arst picking is the best, and the tea flowers are then obtained the largest numbers and dry tex is mostly made from this picking. In case of wet tea after the kneading by sees the tex is placed in wells. These wells are 4 to 6 feet deep with a diameter of 21 it is that the bettom and sides being protected by the dry sheaths of the bamboo. It is a transfer a most spread over and weighted with large heavy stones. Each successive the set of individual till the well is nearly full. Each well contains from 250 to 600 sales that the surface of the went is nearly nin. Then went contains non- 250 to sales that the surface localings of water are made over the ten to keep it from drying and translate a value of the vellous detriment. When taken out from the wells it is been also also haped harkets, each harlest containing 22½ vibs. A packload consists of too harders of 15 vibs, and the price at the place of manufacture varies from Rs. 8 to

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Rs. 12 per pack. In Maingkwin it falls to Rs. 5 per pack. Whether engaged in tea, cotton and nadde Launova. or terrace fields, the time of the Palauno is fully occupied. It is Rs. 12 per pack. In Maingkwin it talls to Rs. 5 per pack. Whether engaged in tea, cotton and paddy, famigya, or terrace fields, the time of the Palaung is fully occupied. It is the cooking. After cooking the morning meal, visiting the kvanng, taking some food for common to leave the house at 8 A.M. or 8-30 and not return the dusk. Women attend to the cooking. After cooking the morning meal, visiting the kyanng, taking some food for weaving, or other work at home. In the fanneya cutting, planting, and reaping seasons the the midday meal the women and children leave for the ya, except those who have spinning, weaving, or other work at home. In the fannsya cutting, planting, and reaping seasons the cattle, back and load baddy or tea for sale. weaving, or other work at home. In the faungra cutting, planting, and reaping seasons the build or do the necessary repairs to the house, etc. The man does all the heavier and more laborious work and does not shoulder this on to the women like the Kachins. Where bund or do the necessary repairs to the nouse, etc. The man does an the near thorn are foreign fields he does not shoulder this on to the women like the Kachins. there are terrace fields he does the ploughing.

Plough (Lafo)

Harrow (Herrans)

Both these are of small size for use in terrace fields and are drawn

by a single bullalo.

Scraper (Likax).—For scraping surface weeds. (Fig. 20.)

Weeder (Ngram).-For uproofing larger weeds.

Sielle (Lavar).—Large and small: the latter for cutting paddy; the former for weeds Siekle (Lavar).—Large and small: the latter for cutting paddy; the former for weeds and cutting grass for ponies.

Disole (Pla-mais or Nomics)—Shaped like an elongated spoon to which a 6-foot drops in a few grains of paddy. The planting commences at the bottom of a slope and the

especially in ten gardens. (Fig. 22.)

Asc.—For tening the larger trees,
Digan's (Firegar) or crocked did used for lopping off small jungle undergrowth,
cially in ten andens (Fig. 22.) specially in tea gardens. (Pig. 22.)

State—Which is not more than 4 inches wide, fixed at an angle to the handle used chiefly for the formation of 'kazins.'

Dashe (Ds).—Used to cut grass off (kazins.)

More (Lathuboder.—A miniature implement used only in cotton yes.

Part is 3 or 4 wide, presses against the forehead. The two ends narrow down and have Fig. Woven with cane about 3 feet long and used for earrying loads; the centre return attacked to them.

The two ends narrow down and have Figure 1 to the man and the standard of the storage of water.

The small basket without cover worn by men at the back of the waist and in the dama rests. The women carry their dams and other implements either in the

which the dama rests. The women carry their dais and other implements either in the

Hat-nengt tea steamers.

Both men and women wear haversacks made of hemp or cotton uncoloured with a thin of modern down the control. stripe of embroidery down the centre.

pe of embroidery down the centre.

Instead of the darkshe a peculiar sickle called hpa-ngawk is sometimes used for keeping tracks down in krafes. the grass down in kacins.

Hemp is cultivated in small patches and the fibre is used for making ropes, bags and the fibre hark of the nettle is also used for rones. samples continued in small parenes and the noise is also used for ropes.

Dogs and cats are reared as pets but are never eaten. Goats, sheep and ducks are For carpentry work, i.e., building kraungs, zavats, and fixing house posts and making

For carpentry work, i.e., building kyaungs, zayats, and fixing house posts and making a semi-circular one. A block of wood answers for hammer.

ploughs and harrows three kinds of chisels are used: two flat, a broad and a narrow one and a semi-circular one. A block of wood answers for hammer.

Nearly every house has a small + kitchen? patch attached in which are planted beans, chillies, sugarcane, mustard, a few onions, pin-zein, kyet-Acarly every house has a small \*kitchen\* patch attached in which are planted beans, golden pumpkins, cucumbers, chillies, sugarcane, mustard, a few onions, pin-zein, kyci-and bachelor's buttens, pumple and white). Peas, goiden pumpians, cucumbers, chimes, sugarcane, mustard, a few omons, pin-zern, kyertomatoes, brinials and flowers (usually coxcomb and bachelor's buttons, purple and white), according to season of year. The flowers are used as kharethi, yams and flowers (usually coxcomb and bachelor's buttons, purple and white), offering to nate and the kraungs and pagodas. The flowers are used as offering to nats and the kyanngs and pagodas.

Although the diet is a vegetable one there is no objection to eating meat when obtains at 7-30 A.M., noon and 8 p.M. Preserved salted fish and smoked fish obtained from Bhamo and eaten and fowls and eages are eaten at all times. There is never any objection to the standard easts when obtained from Bhamo wild animals including ponies (and in places mules) when killed by wild animals and easts and leopard and bear are everywhere readily

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eaten. Frogs, dogs, rats, cats and snakes are not eaten but mice are fried and eaten in parts. Beei is obtained from Kachins and pork from Kachins and Lishaws whenever those people have nat sacrifices. The leaves of various jungle plants are used in curry even when cultivated vegetables are at hand. The curry is particularly insipid as very little salt is used. Salt which comes from Bhamo by Shan carriers on Shan or Kachin pack-bullocks is said to be a source of goitre. In the Manpat tract salt is obtained from the Pangyang bazaar in Hsenwi and in Yabon and Manpun from Momeik. Compared with the Kachins there are very few opium consumers and they number hardly to per cent, of the adult male population. Liquor is drunk at all festivals and is purchased from Shans and Kachins. 'Kundauk' and tobacco with cutch and lime are chewed everywhere both by men and women; this discolours the teeth but does not make them black. Teeth are stained black or dark brown, by rubbing them with soot obtained by burning certain woods. This is said to strengthen and preserve them and prevent toothache and is considered to enhance good looks. The betel box containing kundauk, etc., is always proffered as a welcome to visitors. On the higher hills a palm like the sago palm is found. The pith is taken, cut in small pieces, dried in the sun, then ground into powder and steamed together with rice and eaten. There is no such thing as caste among Palaungs, but lepers are 'outcasted' and usually keep to themselves. There are a few in most tracts. Smoking is common and the pipe is everywhere prominent. Some women also smoke. The pipe is usually composed of bamboo, the root part being used as a bowl, but pipes with huge silver bowls of Shan manufacture, with detachable silver or wooden stem pieces are not uncommon. Pipe bowls of baked earth are for sale in every bazaar.

#### CHAPTER XVIII.-DRESS.

The men wear clothes similar to those of Shans, turban of white cotton cloth (or coloured silk) on the head, a jacket of white or dark warm material, and a pair of loose baggy trousers. The Shan straw hat is not common. Putties of blue cotton cloth are wrapped round the calves in cold weather and black boat-like shoes, which always appear much too big for the wearer with the sole studded profusely with hobnails are never missing. Even hopongyis wear these shoes at times. The boy is dressed like his father, but wears a skull cap of many colours till he is 7 or 8 years old. Between that age and 14 or 15 his head is bare. Both sexes keep the hair short till 15 to 20 years of age when it is allowed to grow to its full length. When old, women usually again crop the hair short, and wear a skull-cap of blue cotton cloth.

Women wear gaiters of a strip of cotton cloth or velvet just big enough to cover the calf from ankle tied at bottom by attached string and tucked in under the calf ring at top to knee; a skirt 34 to 36½ inches long which is suspended from the waist by means of a girdle, falling to the knees and drawn up only in front to cover the breasts being kept in position there by another string on some cane rings or both. The skirt of each clan differs and will be described below. A short buttonless jacket of black or blue cotton cloth in the case of maidens and young women of black green or blue velvet with rather long sleeves, is common to all clans. The cut may be different but is not very perceptible. On the head a turban of black or dark blue is worn and in some clans this is surmounted by a hood which consists of a piece of white cotton cloth, some  $30'' \times 14''$ , folded breadthwise making it  $15'' \times 14''$ , then lengthwise bringing it to  $15'' \times 7''$ , a seam joining the 7'' sides. Young girls do not pull up their skirts in front and in the Humai clan it is customary to keep the breasts exposed till 20 years of age unless marriage takes place earlier, when the skirt must be raised. Girls up to 15 or 16 years wear a many-coloured skull-cap of yellow, white, green, blue and red and when this is discarded the turban is worn.

Formerly women spun the turban worn by both sexes but now cotton cloth is bought for the purpose.

Humai.—Skirt.—Black grounding with thin stripes composed of pin stripes made up of white, red, blue, green and yellow. (Fig. 23.)

(It will be seen that when two widths are put together, the two narrow border stripes equal one of the broader strips.) Down the perpendicular joint, 1½" on each side of the joint, embroidery made Width of cloth, I foot.

up of above colours in wool and cotton with the addition of purple is worked.

Gaiters .- Usually black, but sometimes of yellow, blue or green, but must be only one

Turban.—Black with fringe embroidered in above colours, with silver hangings. Red thread tassels are also attached by young women and black thread tassels by elderly women.

Jacket.—Young women sometimes wear blue or green coats, but elderly women never

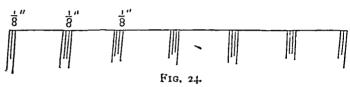
anything but black.

Waist-rings.—Of cane mostly coloured black with 'Sit-si', some in red and a few plaited grass rings.

No hood is worn.

Maingkwin.—Skirt.—Width of cloth about 123" with 7 narrow stripes, \frac{1}{3}" wide.

Grounding blue-black, with pin stripes of yellow, blue, white, and green composing of each stripe. The perpendicular joint is embroidered in the same colours for 11'' on either side of the joint. (Fig. 24.)



Coat.—Same as Humai but is just a trifle longer. The red piping is  $1\frac{3}{4}$  broad and does not run round the neck. The piping round the lower edge is only  $\frac{1}{2}$  wide. Maidens do not pull up the skirt to cover their breasts, which are hidden by drawing the two sides of the coat together and running a needle through them. Unfortunately the needle is oftener absent than present and hardly assists their modesty. Down the centre line of the back there is a thin line of embroidery.

Turban—Is of black cotton cloth, longer than Humai. One edge is embroidered, while both has fringe of red, white, blue, brown, green and yellow threads, and together with the fringe there are a number of silver pendants at one end.

Hoods are not worn except, in rare cases, by a few old women when it is the same as

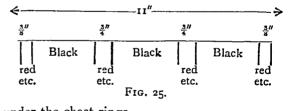
that of Manpat circle.

Gaiters.—Same as Humai. A few women wear shoes.

#### Manmawk.—Skirt.—Width of cloth when worn is 11".

The black grounding is divided by stripes in which red preponderates, but when looked at closely pin lines of white, yellow and green are also seen. (Fig. 25.)

The perpendicular joint is embroidered 11" wide with blue and purple in addition to above colours and with small pompons at every six inches. As soon as puberty is reached the skirt is kept drawn up and fixed under the chest rings.

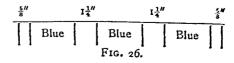


Facket.—Same as Maingkwin. Turban.—Same as Maingkwin. Gaiters.—Same as Maingkwin. No hood is worn.

After marriage women discard torques.

Manton .- Width of cloth when woven 11" or slightly more, with two broad and two narrow stripes of red on a dark-blue grounding. (Fig. 26.)

Each 1¼" red stripe is made up of six ½" stripes of red divided by five pin stripes of green, white and yellow. The ¾" stripes are similarly divided by two There is also a selvedge with a thin pin lines. yellow stripe at top and bottom.



*Jacket.*—As Manmawk.

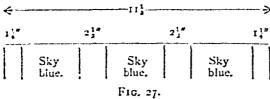
Turban-Is black. The fringe is of sombre colours and there are no silver hangings. Gaiters—May be any colours except yellow and red.

Hood.—White cotton cloth with a black velvet band 2" wide running from the peak down the centre of the back, with a thin line of tassels or threads in red and jellow

down the centre of this band and along the seam on top.

Waist-rings.—Black cane rings at bottom with a large number of plaited grass rings.

above them.



Manpat. - Skir!. - Cloth woven about 34" wide with three wide stripes of pretty sky blue divided by 21" stripes of red. Each 21" red stripe consists of six narrow red stripes divided by pin stripes of green, black, yellow and white. (Fig. 27.)

There is selvedge of yellow top and

bottom.

Hood-Plain white with short coloured threads hanging from the seam and down centre of back.

Manlon. - Skirt. - Cloth when woven 113" wide having a black grounding with one broad stripe down centre and 2 half stripes at edges. (Fig. 28.)

-1137  $1\frac{1}{4}$ Black

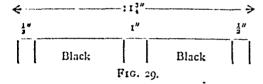
The 21" red stripe has four pin stripes of yellow, black and white running through it dividing it into five equal narrow stripes. Similarly the 11" stripe has two pin lines running through them. The top and bottom of the skirt are edged with a buttonhole edging of white cotton.

Coat.—As Manmawk. Turban.--} As Manton. Hood.—

Gaiters .- As Manton, but they have a thin line of embroidery top and bottom but no lining is allowed.

Waist-rings.—The black cane rings remain in the centre with plaited grass rings at top and bottom.

Manpun.—Skirt.—The cloth is woven 113" wide—much like Manlon, but the black is wider and the red stripe narrower. (Fig. 29.)



The red stripes have pin stripes of yellow, white, green and black running through them.

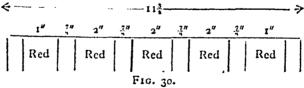
At top and bottom of skirt there is a narrow

blue selvedge.

Jacket.— As Manmawk.

Hood.—As Manlon; it is fringed with silver hangings when this can be afforded. Gailers.—As Manlon, but are sometimes lined. Waist-rings.—As Manlon.

Yabon.—Skirt.—The material is the finest used, and is woven about 112" wide, with bright red as the predominant colour. (Fig. 30.)



The pattern is not regular. There are four black lines 3" wide enclosing three red stripes, each 2" wide, between them. Then going outwards to either side one finds a 1" red stripe with a 1" black line at the edge. The selvedge is formed by pin stripes of white, red, yellow and green.

Between each of the three 2" red stripes there are four and between each of the two 1"

rad stripes there are two pin-stripes of green, black, yellow and white.

Coat. - As Manmawk. Turban.-As Manpun, Hand.—As Manlon. Guiters .- As Manpun. Waliterings - As Manlon.

Raphtans of Manyawn Tract. -Stirt. -The cloth when woven is 114" wide, the ar sa magicaling rad with four quarter inch stripes of black in centre and two [ " stripes at ambalge. (Fig. 31.)



The pattern is irregular like that of Yabon which it resembles, except that the red is wider and the dark stripes narrower. The two 14" red divisions are divided into two equal parts and the three 21" divisions into four equal parts by pin lines of green and black, but these pin lines are not perceptible at any but the nearest distance.

The jacket, turban, hood, gaiter and waist-rings are the same as Manlon.

Manjawp.—The Rao-jawp clan is said to have had a red skirt with thin white lines and their hood was the same as that worn in Manpat.

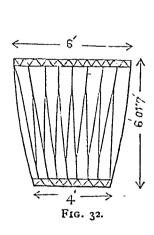
Coiffure.—Women put down the hair, catch it up in the turban and plait both round the head. Men make their hair into a knot on one side, and the turban is wrapped above, without enclosing the hair. The hair, almost without exception, is the happy huntingground of lice. White lice and a small variety of human flee are found on the body and in clothing. The sight of a man or woman sitting in the sun and picking these off his or her garments is not uncommon. The Palaung is, however, not quite so dirty as the Kachin. The women often bathe in the streams without removing the skirt, first washing the upper half of the body then lifting the skirt and washing the lower half. Men bathe naked. Hpoongyis bathe with warm water inside their kyaungs.

#### CHAPTER XIX.—Feasts, Amusements and Musical Instruments.

All amusements are more or less connected with religious or nat feasts, the death vigil and marriage being two that are not so connected. Marriage is a social compact; religion does occupy any part in the ceremony.

#### MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS.

Four kinds of drums are used, viz., the giant drum or "King-de-ang" having both faces which are about 6' and 4' in diameter respectively covered with hide which is kept taut by a continuous leathern thong or stout rope passing up and down and stretching both. (Fig. 32.)



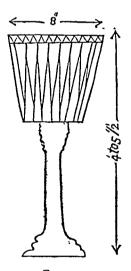


Fig. 33.

The long drum or Ching-Kăbai from 4 to  $5\frac{1}{2}$  feet long having a hide parchment spread on the top only, the stand being made of hollowed wood. (Fig. 33.)

The short drum or "Chu-che" about  $2\frac{1}{2}$  feet long and covered on top only, with a hollow stand like the long drum. Then there is the small drum which is

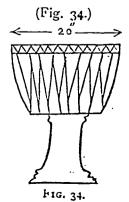
merely a smaller edition of the giant drum and is about 3 feet long.

The big drum, owing to its huge size and shape, has to be placed

in a stand and is beaten on both sides with sticks.

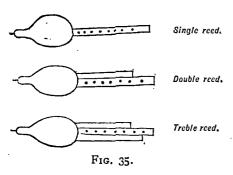
The other three drums are carried by the player suspended by a string round his neck, slung from the right shoulder across the left side and beaten alternately with the fingers and fist—" a combina-tion of our big and kettle drums"—the proper tone being obtained by affixing a small quantity of hard gummy rice in the centre of the parchment or hide.

The giant drum is not used everywhere. Two gongs—a large and a small pair—and one pair of brass cymbals are played in unison with each drum and invariably accompany it. The cymbals for the giant drum are 15" in diameter and the big gong S or 9 spans in circumference. With other drums these measurements diminish to 6" and 5 spans respectively. There are also smaller gongs and cymbals which are not usually played together with drums.



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There are three kinds of flutes—a single, double and a treble reed. (Fig. 35.) The reed is of bamboo and is inserted into the bottom of a small dry gourd; the further or pointed end, where the stalk is, has a little bamboo tube inserted and this acts as the mouth-Both reeds and mouthpiece are secured in the gourd with wax.



In all the tune is played on one reed which has one hole at the bottom for the thumb and seven on top for the fingers. In the double reed, the second reed plays a continuous bass like the bag-pipe. In the treble reed, besides the bass, the extra reed plays a continuous baritone. The "saung" or violin has a parchment head and three wire strings. It is much smaller than its European confrère. The great feast of the year is the feast known as the 23rd day feast held on the 23rd day or 8th waning of Thadingyut. When it is usual for all the residents of each tract to assemble at the village of the kin or where the

senior hpoongyi lives. Every musical instrument available is brought out and there is much singing, shouting and dancing. It is at this time that in Humai, cattle, buffaloes and pigs are slaughtered. The feast is held near the hpoongyi kyaung and commences on the forenoon of the 7th waning, goes on all night and closes in the morning with offerings of food at the hpoongyi kyaung and an address by the hpoongyi. About midnight instrumental music ceases and then young men and women form groups of six or eight at short distances and compete in singing—one sex'of one village pitting itself against the opposite sex of another village. A betel box and perhaps some food divides the two sides. At first both sides stand but on tiring sit down. In each batch there is a leader; the others take the part of chorus singers. This goes on till dawn.

In Maingkwin the girls are placed in the centre and the young men dance round them in a circle, singing love songs the while, and if there are any koyins to be made this is considered a favourite opportunity. Manmawk follows the Humai method. In Manpat the men and girls dance in a large circle with music, a huge bonfire being in the centre. The gathering takes place at Ho Chek as the senior hpoongyi of the tract is there. In Dawmaw, where the kin lives, there are only two houses. In Manlon the assemblage takes place at Mawnoi village (Pangtang village of this tract has a Haiktang man as hpoongyi, follows the "Yun" school and goes to Yabon for the 23rd day feast). In this tract the young men and women being grouped off in batches, the young men of one village surround the girls of another village and dance round them, revolving in a circle. In the Manpon tract the is a very senior man. The Prangsin kyaung is said to be an offshoot of Manton. The sexes compete as in Humai and also dance round a fire as in Manpat. In Yabon the method is the same as in Humai. When dancing the girls move the legs in slow, graceful, but hardly perceptible movements. One hand at a time is raised as in the Highland fling and thus meeting takes place at Prangsin and villagers from Manton also go there as the hpoongyi keeps time with the feet and music. Men use both hands and legs and wind these about in most bewildering style, while the body goes through a series of twistings and contortions, suggesting the boneless man.

Next to the 23rd day feast come the annual gatherings at the commencement, middleand end of lent. One or two days feeding takes place, there is some music and singing at night, and a "Sundaw" the following morning closes the proceedings. Hoongyis travel about and pay respects to each other during the lent and the laity honour them with special marks and declarations of respect at these three festivals. A certain number of villagers also come to the village of the senior hpoongyi of the tract at the feast at the commencement of lent. In the Maingkwin, Manton and Manpun tracts there is a feast at the full moon of This is after the method of the 23rd day feast, but each village has its own Tabaung.

gathering.

On New Year's day of which intimation is punctually and regularly received from Mandalay through written messages received through Momeik or kyaungs in Hsenwi, a feast which in parts lasts two days is held. All the smaller images are brought out from the kyaung placed in a 'neikban kyaung' and washed with water from water-wheels which are kept going by women pouring water into them. The larger images are washed inside the kyaung. All pagodas are likewise washed down; there is dancing, music, singing and feeding. The young people throw water on one another and take water to the elders, who wash their hands and faces with it.

There are no regular play troupes and the 'rat' and 'vokthe' of the Burmese is

There are no regular play troupes and the 'zat' and 'yôkthe' of the Burmese is unknown, but the people derive the heartiest pleasure in gossip and play and music with

dancing at the above feasts.

#### CHAPTER XX.—GAMES AND SPORT.

Children of both sexes indulge in various games with large brown flat seeds (the gonnyin) more or less circular. These games are known in Burmese as

(a) Do, (c) Hti-daing-sa, (b) Be-galu-Nya-galu, (d) Hkaung-shat, and as they have probably been described elsewhere I shall not detail them. (Note.—If details are wanted I shall give them later.)

'Apauk hnit-se' and other card games are played.

A game much the same as the Burmese 'pasit' or English Ludo is played, five shells being used instead of dice. There are eight counters to each player. A rough sketch of the board is given. (Fig. 36.)

Odds and evens played with four shells.

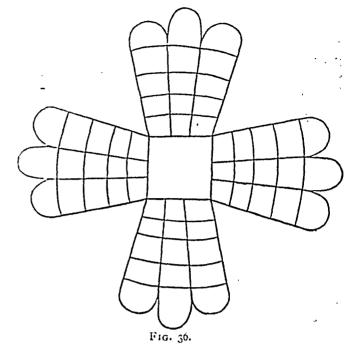
The Burmese game of 'Ze' is also played with ten small

stones.

not Children do 'mud-pies,' but with sticks and leaves they amuse themselves by making miniature shrines, kyaungs, pagodas and figures of nats. They also take curved sticks and play at 'buffalces'; two players taking a stick each, the two ends of which represent the horns, and twist these about in imitation of the animal's head when fighting, the stick of one player striking against that of

his opponent.

Tops, without metal pegs, are also played. Having no pegs, they do not damage one another. They are made of hard wood and are never painted. The shape is somewhat rude, but



on the whole its outlines are much the same as the English top.

Boys amuse themselves with bows and mud pellets. These are also used to drive off birds from the ripening crops.

Arrows are used only against wild animals and they are sometimes poisoned.

The Palaung is not at all averse to handling a gun and shooting game, big or small.

Game is stalked or shot from a perch on a tree. Beating the jungle or driving is not

in vogue. Spears are common and are used for protection against wild animals.

Das are always worn by men, the handle and scabbard being, at times, overlaid with silver work. Besides domestic and agricultural use they are used by men when dancing, a man using one, two and sometimes three das, twirling them about his body and head, under his legs and rolling over them without cutting himself.

The games noted above are not common to all tracts, some are played in one, some in another, but Manpat is the only tract where tops and 'Do' are not played.

#### CHAPTER XXI.—Internal Administration.

For many years prior to the British arrival, each clan had its own kin or clan chieftain. Sailen and Humai as noted above in Chapter III, split into two and, though of the same clan, had separate kins. The appointment of kin was hereditary, the descent usually going to the eldest surviving male relative, the choice being settled at a meeting of the elders of the tract. Besides the kin or Pu-kang there were other officers, such as the-

Pu-che, or village headman.

Pu-hpawng, headman of the village where the kin resided and in Manton also where

a publik lived.

Pubak, headman of his own village and having jurisdiction over the pu-ches of certain other villages in his circle. The circle was usually the limits of a sub-clan. Sometimes there were no subordinate villages.

Pu-chari, or clerk to the kin or pu-che.

Paw-mong, headman over one village like the pu-che or over a group of villages as the pu-bak.

Pu-uh, Puchiyang or Teng-saw, the village crier.

In certain villages owing to the great local influence obtained, the office of pak, paw-mong and even puche, like that of kin, became hereditary, but generally on the death of one of these officers, a successor was elected by the villagers, the choice being confirmed, as a matter of fact, by the kin, to whom it had to be notified and a small present made. The succession to a kinship was similarly notified to the Sawbwa of Momeik. In a few villages there was a pu-haung in addition to the pu-che and in those cases he was subordinate to the pu-che.

The pu-ches collected the revenue and paid is to the pu-hanner of the size's paid who made it over to the kin and the kin accompanied by the pu-haung and a same took it to Momen's and a same took it to Momen's and a same took it to Momen's and a same took it.

took it to Momeik and paid it to the Sandar to whom every clan was in allegiand to At times officers from Momeis came up and received it. The amount shadowing by Sailen (with Sauram was Rs. 500, by Humai with Paukha) Rs. 1,000 and wholever Rs. 500; the hins, however, collected at the rate of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of the rate of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of the rate of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of the rate of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of the rate of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of the rate of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of the rate of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of the rate of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the rate of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of the sail of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of the sail of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of the sail of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of the sail of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of the sail of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of Rs. 5 per house and shadowing the sail of Rs. 5 per hou

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excess there was between themselves and the other officers, all of whom were exempt from taxation. The collection was made twice a year, Rs. 2-8-0 being taken in the 6th Shan month and Rs. 2-8-0 in the 12th Shan month. In Manmawk Rs. 10 was collected per house and 10 per cent. taken by the kin.

In Manton the rate is said to have been anything between Rs. 8 and Rs. 15 per house, and in the other tracts Rs. 5 per house as in Humai. The kin either took 10 per cent. and paid the rest into Momeik or bargained with the Sawbwa to accept a lump sum.

The pu-che decided all civil and criminal cases of a petty nature, other cases going to the kin who had plenary powers to deal with all matters. If a defendant did not pay he was put in stocks till he or his relatives did so and, failing this, he was either released or the kin could order him to be killed. As crime was rare there was not much call for the exercise of powers. In civil cases the kin or pu-che would take a few rupees as their fee.

Nowadays the kin collects Rs. 10 per house and pays it into the court of the civil officer who also tries all criminal cases and such civil matters as are reported to him. The kins or pu-ches mostly settle these and very few cases indeed are reported.

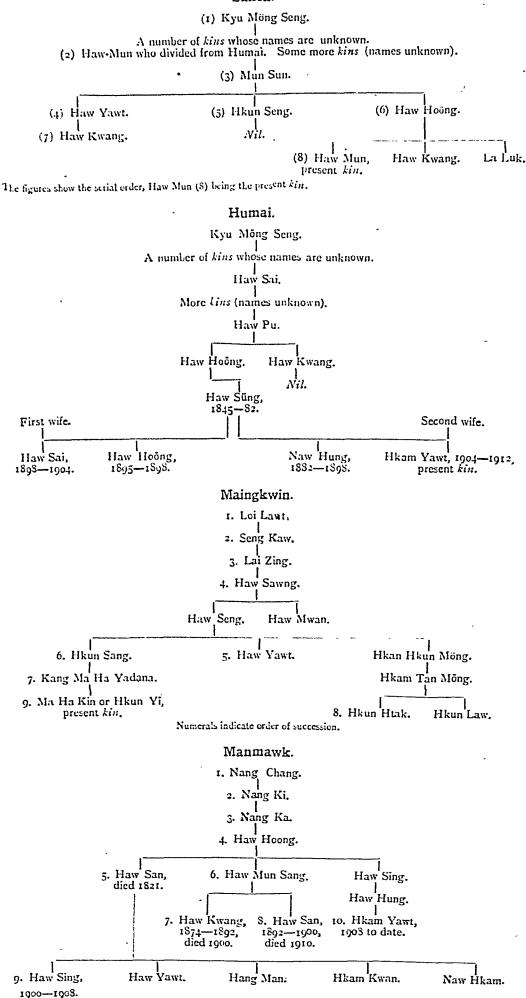
The tag are reported in Manager the total amount being made up a retable distribution is

tracts; for example, in Manpun, the total amount being made up, a ratable distribution is calculated, every male and female between the ages of 15 and 60 bearing an equal share.

In other tracts those with means usually assist the more unfortunate brethren.

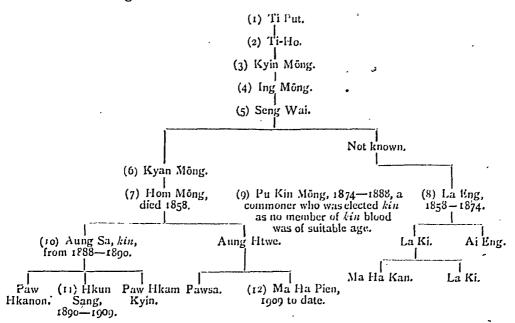
In the western tracts, and wherever Kachins had secured a foothold, the Palaungs had to buy them off annually by a small payment in money or kind, otherwise all sorts of false charges would be pressed and compensation demanded. Even after submitting to blackmail the Palaung was not happy and if there is one part in the British possessions which welcomed and appreciates the presence of the British it is the Palaung area in the Kodaung. The Momeik Sawbwa took what he could get, but extended no protection whatever against the reprecious Kachins. whatever against the rapacious Kachins.

## Genealogical Trees of the various Kins so far as is known or can be remembered. Sailen.



The 7th and 8th Kudun kins (there were a large number before). Haw Kwang and Haw San resigned owing to old age.

Manton.—A large number of kins of whom the first to be remembered is—



Manpat.—The present kin is Paw Soi, son of Kum Kyen. He seems utterly unable to say who were kins before him, but the four last kins seem to have been—

Haw Kwang.

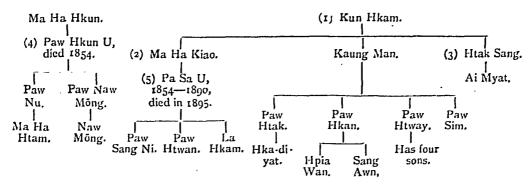
Paw Sawng.

Kun Kyen.

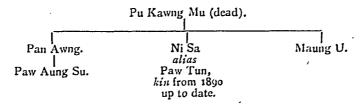
Paw Soi (present man).

Manlon.—The present kin is Paw Ri, son of Htun Gyaw, but I have not yet obtained information to write up a genealogical tree.

Manpun.—Many unknown names. Then came two brothers known as Kun Hkam and Ma Ha Hkun.



The 5th kin, Paw Sa U, was removed in 1890 and it was then ruled that no member of the kin stock should be reappointed. A commoner named Ni Sa was then appointed. His relatives as far as is known are—



Yabon.—The present representative of the kin stock is Hkam Awng, son of Ma Ha Wan, the last kin who was turned out about 1895, when the pubak, Shwe Pan, was put in charge temporarily, but has continued in office since then. On his death Hkam Awng will be appointed kin Hkam Awng's genealogy is as follows—

(1) Ma Ha Hkam.

(2) Ma Ha Wan, deposed 1895.

Hkam Awng.

Ma Ha Hkam was the first to be appointed kin; before that he was a pubak only and this tract used to be under a pubak.

#### CHAPTER XXII.—NATS AND DEITIES.

That nats and also the offerings made to them in the different tracts vary a great deal, and each tract will be separately noted on. Common to all tracts is the house nat. every house, in a corner or against a wall, will be found a few dry flowers, where this nat abides. In cases of illness he is propitiated with small offerings of flowers and parched or broiled rice. The welfare of the individual house is his especial domain. Then there are the more important nats outside.

Humai .-- Two nats only are worshipped, Să-möng and Bo, the latter being the servant of Separate shrines are made to each, but a common roof covers them, the shrine of Bo being in a slightly lower level. They represent the spirits of the Sawbwa of Momeik

and of his generals respectively.

Years ago, it is said, there was some internal strife at Momeik and the Sawbwa, being driven from there, arrived by the main road at Manna and pitched his camp there. He went for a visit to Monhkat leaving his Amat behind. When the Amat thought it was about time for the Sawbwa to return he despatched messengers to go and meet him and accompany him back, but in doing so a slip of the tongue caused him to use the word 'owma' which means 'bring' instead of 'hapma' meaning 'to accompany'. The stupid messengers opining the minister had some sinister design in using the word 'owma' instead of 'hapma' and not daring to question him met the Sawbwa with two of his generals on their way back near the Nam Hpe stream and forthwith massacred them there, and brought the Sawbwa's head to the Amat at Manna. The expression (Nawri-hpye) in Shan is synonymous of death, and from it the stream which is now called Nam Hpe derived its name. The spirits of the Sawbwa and his two bos or generals turned into evil nats and have since demanded propitiation. They made their presence and intentions known through certain old women,

known in Burmese as 'nat-kadaws.'

The principal Să-möng nat shrine is at Na-aw village and there, on a selected day in the third Shan month when the taungyas are being cut, a great meeting takes place, every village in Humai and Pankha tract being represented. The 'Htan-möng' nat-saya goes through a ritualized ceremony, offers food-drink and flowers, and the coming crops are commended to his care. Following this, local offerings, on a smaller scale, are made at the Să-möng shrine in every village. The Htan-möng also offers a yard piece of white calico at the Na-aw shrine. After the offering, this cloth is taken to Man-Kan, the seat of the kin, and ceremoniously presented to the kin by elders. The kin takes the cloth and six months later, in the ninth Shan month, he presents it with an offering at the Nam Hpe

shrine near the spot that the massacre took place.

Besides food, money offerings are made, but the money is always returned to the owners. The Htan-mong is at liberty to appropriate food offerings after the ceremony. In cases of illness or calamity, individual or collective, further offerings are made at this shrine.

At the beginning, middle and close of lent, offerings are made at the shrine and the Să-möng nat must always be informed when any other festival is to take place, and asked to extend his benevolent care. Whenever Să-möng is given an offering Bo also gets a share.

The nat shrines are repaired once a year, just before the offering in the third Shan

month, males only assisting in this work.

Hpoongyis venerate the nats and make offering through the Htan-möng in case of illness

When the annual gathering takes place at Na-aw in the third Shan month, a buffalo, cow or bull is shown to Să-möng by the Htan-möng. This buffalo—or a substitute in case it dies—is offered to Să-möng in the ninth Shan month at Mankan. The Htan-möng has then to summon the Na-aw nat to Mankan, and then the animal is taken to the jungle and slaughtered while standing, the neck being severed by chopping on the top or an upward cut or cuts given from the bottom.

The flesh is eaten by all those assembled. It is never offered at the nat shrine. Eight dry fishes, some rice, cakes, 20 ticals of silver, and four plates of curry and rice constitute the offering at the shrine. The silver, as before, is returned to the owners, the Htan-möng

appropriating the food offerings.

#### Maingkwin.—The nats are—

(1) Hpi-hpa: lightning.

(2) Hpi-San-Hup: the same as the U-di-bwa nat of the Burmese.
(3) Hpi-Hkun-haw-Hkam: the spirit of the King of Burma.
(4) Hpi San hpa: the spirit of the Sawbwa of Momeik.

(5) Hpi-pu-kang: the spirit of the kin of Maingkwin.

The whole five are to be found at Chekan, all other villages have Nos. 4 and 5 only and their shrines are always within the village. Nos. 1, 2 and 3 are outside of it, in separate places.

An annual gathering takes place at Chekan from the 9th to 13th lazañ of Tabodwe, when the shrines are repaired and offerings made. The offerings are as follow:-

			To No. 1, Nat of Lightning.	To No. 2, U-di-bwa Nat.	To No. 3, Nat of King.	To No. 4, Nat of Sawbwa.	To No. 5, Nat of Kin.
Plates of rice Plates of curry Fishes Packets of wet tea Silver bracelets Paper ornaments Plates of rice and fish m Paper flags	   		4 4 4 4 4 4 4	4 4 4 4 	4 4 4 4 4 4	4 4 4 4 	6 6 6 6 6 
Wooden guns Wooden elephants Wooden horses Wooden dahs Chains of fine bamboo (	  huyi ')	•••	1 1 2 5 fathoms.	2 I I 2 20 fathoms.	  	  	••• ••• ••• •••

Nos. 4 and 5, i.e., the nats of the Sawbwa and kin, are collectively spoken of as the Sa-möng nat. The bracelets are returned to the owners. The other offerings may be taken by the nat-sayas. There are three nat-sayas (htan-mongs) at Chekan. No sooner the Chekan offering is complete all the other village repair their nat shrines and make small offerings, and then again in the waning of Tabodwe, a second general gathering takes place at Chekan, an offering similar to the previous one is made and the crops commended to the care of the nats.

As in Humai the nats are also informed of all feasts and festivals.

Hpoongyis do not make offerings in Maingkwin, but countenance that being done by the They however, at the end of lent, invite the nats to share the merits accumulated by the vigours of fast.

Manmawk.—There are three nats, viz., Să-möng, Hkunlu and Nau Sö.

The two latter only at the kin's village, Manmawk. All are masculine in gender. Sa-möng is pre-eminently the nat of the land, but the other two appear to have equal jurisdiction and are similarly venerated. Each has a separate shrine in the jungle.

The Să-möng nat is propitiated during the three lental festivals, i.e., at the opening, middle and close of lent. He is also informed before any other feast is held and a small

offering made.

Once a year in the third Shan month, when the taungyas are cut, Nau Sö is propitiated, his blessing is asked on the crops and he is requested to prevent accidents. A few elderly men from the different villages accompany the Htan-möng to the shrine when the offering

Hkunlu is likewise propitiated in the seventh Shan month and also whenever illness and calamity to man or beast befalls, the Htan-möng, in consultation with the elders, deciding, when this is necessary. When the shrines are repaired the whole village, men and women join in the work.

Manton.—Besides the house nat there are—

(1) Hsö Mong Löng—the big tiger of the land.(2) Haw-hpi-hpa—lightning.

(3) Siri Möng—the village nat.

No. 1 is probably the same as the Sa-mong of other tracts. Every village has a shrine for Siri Mong, but Nos. 1 and 2 have a single shrine only: the former near Umang village, the latter on the north side of Manton.

The gender of Siri Möng is not known, but Hsö Möng Löng and Haw-hpi-hpa are

masculine.

Hsö Möng Löng is given offerings four times a year: firstly in the first or second Shan months when the taungyas are being cut and are commended to him, then in the seventh Shan month when the growing crops need his benevolence and at the beginning and end of lent. Every village in the tract is represented at these four offerings, at the first of which the shrine is repaired.

The offerings consist of raw rice, one viss of ngapi and ten packets of (a) wet tea, (b)flowers, (c) parched rice, (d) white paper flags, ten bamboos containing water and ten "Ko-kas."

After the offering the rice and ngapi are cooked and eaten by all. In the fifth Shan month the shrine of Haw-hpi-hpa is repaired by the whole tract and an offering similar to that made at Hsö Möng Löng is made. A miniature wooden bedstead, also a wooden horse and wooden elephant are at the same time offered for the nat's use, his blessing is asked on the budding crops and health and prosperity prayed for.

A few days before the offering to Haw-hpi-hpa every village makes its offering to Siri Möng and repairs the shrine. The shrine in this as in most other cases resembles a Burmese "Ye-o-zin" made of four wooden posts, a bamboo flooring and thatch roof with the two sides and back walled up and sometimes also the front where a small doorway is made.

A bamboo fence surrounds the structure which is seldom more than 8 feet high.

XXXIX APPENDICES.

The offering to Siri Möng is the same as that to the other two nats except that ten small packets of ngapi are offered instead of a viss packet and this ngapi is not afterwards eaten. The office of this nat is to keep a close watch on the well-being of the village. In case of much illness or dire calamity further collective offerings may be made to Hsö Möng Löng and Haw-hpi-hpa and offerings either by whole village or individuals to Siri Möng. In this tract the house nat is supposed to be an old man and an old woman, his wife.

A small shrine is made either within or without the house for occasional offerings.

There is also no recognized htan-möng or Natsaya, any old man who knows the necessary ritual being eligible to perform the ceremonies.

Manpat.—There are only two nat shrines in this tract, both being near Manpat village. The only htan-möng lives in Dawmaw with the kin. The residents of the shrines are known as the upper and lower nats (Hpi Nö Hpi Tan), and they look after the country They are propitiated together in the waxing moon of the seventh Shan month when the whole tract joins in the festival. It lasts a single day only. The htan-mong offers

at each shrine four packets of curry,

two packets of ngapi, two packets of rice,

two packets of flowers (coxcombs usually),

Two white paper flags, Two candles, One goglet of water, Two lumps of wet tea,

Two lumps of tobacco,

after the shrines have been repaired.

At other times special offerings may be made individually, but the htan-mong must officiate at the ceremony. Such offerings are suggested by the hpoongyi after looking at the "zada" of the person in whose behalf the offering is to be made and consulting his "kyansa," but the hpoongyis do not themselves make offerings.

#### Manlon.—There are five nats known as—

(1) Hpahom—the nat who is the greatest and watches over the borders of Manlon

(2) Pu-hpa-long—the nat of the Sawbwa of Momeik.

(3) Să-möng—the pupil or 'tabyi' of Pu-hpa-long.

(4) Long-Kam—the nat of the forest who should look after the cattle and prevent their destruction by wild animals.

(5) Ye-hkan—the nat of the granary who should see that full granaries are obtained.

Să-möng has a shrine in every village, but the other four have a single shrine only, Nos. 1 and 2 being near Manlon, the kin's village, while Nos. 3 and 4, close to one another, are on the main road between Manlon and Maw-noi.

All the nat shrines are repaired on a Monday in the month of Nayon, and in the month of Pyatho during the waxing moon and on a Monday a great assemblage takes place at Manlon when offerings are made to all the nats commencing with Hpa-hom. In both cases a Monday is selected as it is the tiger's day, the Shan letter or (ka) being the first prominent letter in the word Kamaw by which the tract is also known. (It is now usually written Gammaw). The Burmese system, which I presume is well known, is followed wherein certain days of the week belong to certain animals or birds and each day appropriated to certain letters of the alphabet. The table is as follows:—

Day of week.		Bird or animal to which consigned.		ich Let	Letters of Shan alphabet pertaining		
Monday	•••		Tiger	***	•••	౧, న, అ	
"Tuesday			Lion	***	•••	က-သ-ည္,	
Wednesday	•••	•••	Up to no Afternoo less ele	oon—eleph n —Haing phant.	ant }	ယ, ရ, လ, ဝ	
Thursday	•••		Rat	•••	•••	o, có, o	
Friday	•••	•••	Mole	•••	•••	$\infty$	
Saturday	•••		Naga	•••	***	တ, ထ, ૠိ	
Sunday	•••	•••	Kălon	•••	•••	and the other vowels.	

On the day of the offering the villagers collect at the shrine of Hpahom and then visit Să-möng, Pu-hpa-long, Long-kam and Ye-hkan in serial order and make an offering of two bamboos containing wet tea, one bamboo filled with rice, one with curry, some paper ornaments and flowers at each. A goglet of water is placed and a small "tagun" planted at each. Hpa-hom is asked by the htan-mong to see to the general good of the tract. A request for special protection is made to Pu-hpa-long and Sa-mong. Longkam is beseeched on

behalf of the cattle and asked to protect them against tigers and Yehkan is prayed to send timely rain and look kindly on the crops.

Before this gathering a general collection of a packet of dry tea and a cubit of cloth is made from each house and given to the 'nat-saya' to buy rice with. He buys the rice and divides it among the villagers to cook on the day of festival and out of this the assemblage

is fed, a very small proportion being taken for the offerings to the nats. Neither the nat-

saya nor anybody else eats food offered to the nats.

When this central offering is concluded the villagers disperse and shortly after similar offerings are made at the shrine of Să-mong in the other villages. Each village has its own nat-saya.

The nats are informed of all other festivals, the nat-saya offering up a little rice and

then throwing it away.

Should tigers trouble the cattle Long-kam is again propitiated.

#### Manpun -The nats are:-

- 1. Hpătân Ngau-möng.
- 2. Fa-tă-ra.
- 3. Chan Ai.

- 4. Fa-hom.
- Sük-long.
- 6 Hpi-möng or Samöng.

#### 7. Märit.

In the waning of Tabodwe when the taungy as are about to be cut the hpoongy i selects a day and all the villagers in this tract (except Prangsin) collect at Htakchet and repair the shrines of the first five nats and next day an offering is made at each of them consisting of-

- I Goglet of water.
- r Small screen (kalaga).
- 1 Bunch of plantains.
- 3 Paper flags. 3 "Kok-kas."
- 3 Small paper umbrellas.
- 3 Balls of rice and curry mixed.
- 3 Small baskets of sand.
- 3 Buckets (or bamboos) of water.
- 3 Small packets of tobaccos.
- 3 Small bunches of flowers.

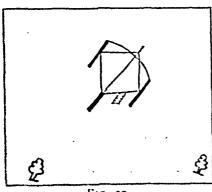
  1 White "tagun."

6 Small pieces of dry fish.

The htan-mong calls a prayer and blessing on each and they are besought to look after the general welfare. The shrines of all the above are apart from one another and are all after the "Ye-o-zin" type. Individual offerings can also be made—the htan-möng in each

The shrines of Nos. 6 and 7 are different, being made of four long posts, with a bamboo or plank platform about 6 feet square 7 or 8 feet off the ground, and no roof. The four posts of No. 7 are about 12 feet high, a thin bamboo being bent in an arc to connect them diagonally. Under the platform there is a post about 6 feet high surrounded by a bamboo gabion filled with loose sand and gravel. A steep ladder leads up to the platform and the shrine is encompassed with a square bamboo fence having one small gate for entry.

The shrine of No. 6 has the two back posts a little longer than the two in front and they are not connected by diagonal bamboo arcs. A rough bird's-eye sketch of No. 7 is under



(Fig. 37.)

At New Year the shrine and fence of Hpi-mong or Să-mong is repaired and an offering of rice and curry, water, flowers and flags is made by the entire tract. These offerings are not handed by the htan-mong but by an officer called the Pan taga tha tha na zaw. A hpoongyi mounts the platform and delivers an address.

The offering and ceremony at the shrine of Marit is the same as above, but there is no regular or annual date for it. When illness or wild animals trouble he is thought of and appeased, otherwise no notice is taken of him. These are the only two nats in whose ceremony a hpoongyi

takes an actual part.

In this tract the house nat is, besides occasional

offerings, offered to regularly five times a year, viz., at New Year, again in the third Shan month on account of the new taungyas and at the three lental feasts.

Prangain village in this tract does not come to Htakchet, but has two nats of its own known as

San-Sang-Upük, the white elephant, San-pall-man, the village guardian nat, but I know nothing more of these.

Yabon.—In this tract there are six nats, one, a male, having its shrine near the village known as Ga-nawn-gung-ganawu-maran (or, in Shan, Hpi-möng hpi-man), the nat of the country and village and the other five are in the jungle. Of these one is dedicated to each cardinal point—North, South, East and West—and the last is not of the Shwe-le-wa, a very ancient pageds at Italichet (Manpun) and faces that pageda. The note are invoked by the not-saya and there are four annual offerings. The offerings consist of dry or salted fish, cooked rice, plantain, ten, tobacco and flowers.

Occasional offerings are also made when calamity befalls men or beasts, the Appengyi deciding when such offerings are necessary after consulting his 'Kyan-sa.'

The practice of placing pebbles in open work bamboo cylinders and banging these over the enterior diary of a lacke to keep out evil spirits is common to all tracts. These small pelificants tiles from the enclosure of a nat-alcine.

The office of htan-möng or nat-saya is not hereditary and is made by selection of a suitable candidate, always an old man, who knows the necessary ritual. For illustration I give the method prevailing in Manlon. On the death of the htan-möng a general meeting is made and an elder selected as successor. This gentleman then calls aloud to the nats and asks them to notify their approval or disapproval of the choice by means of a dream. Should he see white clothes in his dream the nats are pleased, if black or red, they do not favour the choice and another meeting and selection have to be made. On this psychological night he must sleep in a clean place and avoid sexual intercourse. In the morning he tells the kin of his dream and the kin informs the others. A man dare not resort to falsehood. Having no dream or seeing no clothes does not count. He must go on dreaming till he sees white or black or red clothes.

#### CHAPTER XXIII.—OMENS.

These differ in the different tracts.

Humai.—A gyi or sambhur running directly across one's path is a bad sign and most people would hesitate to proceed. If the crossing were made at an angle the portent would be far less evil and one would not turn back. Seeing a snake is a good sign. Snakes are not killed unless they exhibit enmity.

not killed unless they exhibit enmity.

A branch falling is not good. If it falls in front of one the direction of the evil is indicated and one must not proceed; if at the right side of one it refers to one's near relatives, if on the left to distant relatives and if at the back to one's self. In all cases it is considered an evil sign.

Hair twirls in ponies—so minutely looked for by Burmese—are not considered.

Maingkwin.—As Humai and in addition the urine or excreta of gyis, sambhur and human beings or the last named when easing themselves if seen in one's path are unfavourable omens.

Manmawk.—If a deer or snake crosses one's path from left to right it is a bad sign; if in the other direction it is very fortunate and is called 'Going into the bag' as the haversack hangs on the left side from the right shoulder. The breaking and falling of a branch from a tree is always a bad sign.

In Manlon when wandering in the jungle should a single egg of a wild fowl be seen it is very bad luck and the egg is immediately destroyed. If more than one it does not matter and the eggs are then taken away and eaten. Also the falling of trees or branches is thus interpreted; if before one a near relative is about to die; if at the back a distant relative and if on the sides a co-villager will die. The other omens are construed as in Manmawk.

The remaining tracts agree with Humai. Everywhere some credence is attached to dreams. In Manlon tract dreams of courting girls or catching fish are lucky signs, but if red or black colours appear it is always an unfavourable sign. Likewise dreams of riding, silver and gold are bad and give headaches.

#### CHAPTER XXIV.-MISCELLANEOUS.

(a) Calendar.—The Burmese calendar is followed and months and days are known by their Shan names, but the year has the number in the cycle of 60 mentioned above. The shape of the earth is considered flat. It is thought and believed that the sun is in a box. When the box is open it is day, when closed it is night. Morning and evening are different aspects of the open box; who opens and closes the box has not been thought of.

(b) Totemism.—There is no trace of this or of castes or tribal marks except that of the

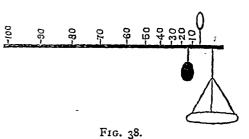
skirt worn by women.

(c) Magic and witch craft are practically unknown. A wizard that used to live in Htakchet (Manpun)has shifted into the Ngadaung hill-tracts of Momeik. Belief in the 'evil eye' is prevalent and Maingthas are feared.

(d) Weights and Measures — The two-tray scales, with fulcrum in the centre is used; also the single tray scale with fulcrum at one end of the

bar. (Fig. 38.)

The latter is unsatisfactory and the smallest weight that can be measured with it is 10 ticals. Everywhere the viss is used, 100 ticals being equal to one viss,  $\frac{1}{3}$ ,  $\frac{1}{4}$ ,  $\frac{1}{2}$ , 1, 2, 5, 10 and 20 tical weights, made in the shape of the Burmese lion (chinthe) or the shell drake (hintha) are bought at Namkhan or sold by traders. When no



at Namkhan or sold by traders. When no weights are handy money is used. Seven rupees being used instead of a 5 tical weight, and other weights in proportion. The Burmese pyi, 4 pyi or hkwet and 16 pyi or the baskets, are used for measurements of quantity, also an 8-pyi basket alled a 'hpai' or 'hkwai.'

(e) Carving, etc.—There are no real carvers, painters or stone masons, and when work of this kind has to be done, as when building masonry pagodas, sayat and staircases are built, Burmese are usually engaged from Momeik. Formerly there used to be masons. The

Palating autores course in green of Bundha fetancing and exting in mond and known how to overder than make gride had. He can also do monder work such as colling for springer, personals
and pulping, from alluth the dynamics distincts the annual addresses. Every typing in decreated work highly a countrie senses depoting Bundha's life and small glaced pictures of the
Bundha, channed from Manchaley, and numerous hollow git Buddhas both standing and sitting
are chimned from Tahugin he Sanche. These latter are brought round for sale by Burman.
There are almost few large markle images and a great number of small ones, thiefly with break
include off. thus a middling being the work of the Kachina. Some of the old pagodas in
Many's war, Manhon and other parts show that in years gone by the Palating used to cast
says arounantal squares of limidha in broase and ropper, make bells of fair dimensions and
smaller images also in based terracutta.

As stated in his physical characteristics the Palaung is a timid person, and constantly so higher. At the same time I do not think he is one whit inferior to the flarman in this respect, but there cannot be the least doubt he would never have been able to take the grands against the Kaelin, who, it not checked by the British occupation, would suntainly have never as the Tamorhamy and Henrici and friven the Palaunys before them.

sustantly have overrow the Tamphaing and Heenwi and driven the Palaungs before them.

(1) Oxfor.—When put to it a Palaung swears by all the natt, calling on them to visit him was use parashment.—that lightning may strike him, tigers eat him, drowning and

officers perstake that, should be speak falsely.

the Storage in unknown.

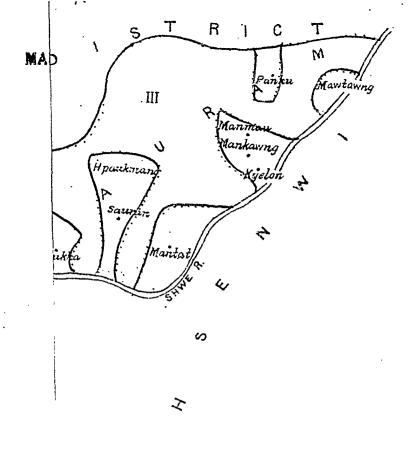
Merels—A Palanny may well be proud of his morals. Rape, adultery and almost all crime is practically non-existent. Fernication, though not unknown, is not research and very few women bear children out of wedlock. In this they differ greatly from the Kachina.

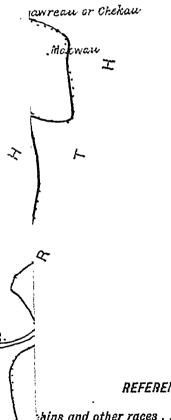
the light of traps.—In addition to his gun and bow, wild animals, especially bears, are caught by the light of traps. The bear trap consists of a neose fixed to a stake, usually near the trap ground logarist and bequards are occasionally caught in long traps made by driving stakes as the ground joining them on top and laying a bait. This trap is common to the Burman and Klachin.

(4) Matther.—These are now everywhere used, and the flint as a means of starting a few or legisling a pipe is nowhere seen. Japanese match-boxes sell at one and two pice per back.

### (1) Comparating Table of a few Words and Sentences in the various Dialects.

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#### REFERENCES.

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#### APPENDIX B.

#### TERMS OF RELATIONSHIP.

In a discussion which I had with Mr. J. G. Frazer and Dr. W. H. R. Rivers shortly before leaving England, both gentlemen pointed out that very little information is at present available regarding Indian vernacular terms of relationship, and expressed the hope that it might be possible, with the aid of the Provincial Superintendents appointed for the coming Census, to fill in this gap in our knowledge. It is desired to know the names for the different relations, not only in the principal vernaculars, but also, and more especially, in the dialects spoken by the aboriginal tribes. Provincial Superintendents are therefore requested to endeavour to obtain the vernacular equivalents of the English terms contained in the annexed list in as many languages of the Province as possible. I would suggest that, as far as possible, missionaries working amongst aboriginal tribes be asked to furnish the names in use amongst those tribes. It is essential that the agency employed should be thoroughly reliable.

2. In addition to the mere names, it is desired to collect information regarding customs connected with kinship, such as the (so-called) levirate and the custom amongst certain castes whereby the maternal uncle arranges marriages. I append a note by Dr. Rivers, who drew up the enclosed list of terms of relationship. This might be circulated to the persons who are asked to undertake the proposed inquiry.

E. A. GAIT, Census Commissioner for India.

#### EXTRACT FROM A LETTER FROM DR. W. H. R. RIVERS, F.R.S.

I enclose a list of terms of relationship in which I have underlined (italicized) those which I think are the most important. You will notice that the relationships in the second column are the reciprocals of those in the first, and are best obtained together by following up the question "What do you call X?" by the question "What does X call you?" or "What do you call your father?" and "What does your father call you?" The distinctions in the terms for brother and sister according to the age and the sex of the person usin; them, make a rather complicated business, but these distinctions certainly exist in India.

The relationships from "Father's brother" to "Mother's sister's child" are all important, and I hope you will be able to ask for them all. I have only underlined the more important of the reciprocal terms but should like to know them all. I do not anticipate that the distinctions between the four kinds of grandparent and the four kinds of grandchild would be found in India, but it would be well to ask for them on the chance of the distinction turning up somewhere. The same applies to the four kinds of parent-in-law, and here again I do not expect that you would find the wife's parents distinguished from the husband's. The eight kinds of the brother and sister-in-law relationship are all important. It is not often that the last three relationships have names, and one for the last is very rare, but I should be glad if you could include them. In many cases different terms are used when speaking to a relative and when speaking of a relative to a third person, and both forms might be obtained.

As regards customs connected with kinship, these might be divided into two classes: (1) duties or privileges falling to the lot of a certain kin and (2) restrictions on the conduct of certain kin. I don't know how far you would like to leave these open in order not to prejudice your inquirers, but I think it would be safe under the first head to ask particularly for any functions performed by certain kin in ceremonial, whether of birth, marriage, death, or of other kinds. In the second class attention might be drawn to restrictions on the use of the names of certain kin, and in this connection there might be questions directed to discover whether people are ever spoken of as the "father is X," "the husband of X," etc.,

in order to avoid these restrictions.

#### LIST OF TERMS OF RELATIONSHIP.

```
Father
                                                      Son.
            Mother
                                                      Daughter.
                                     ...
            Elder brother (m.s.)
                                                      Younger brother (m.s.).
            Elder sister (w.s.)
                                                      Younger sister (w.s.).
Elder
                                                                        ∫ Elder.
          } Sister (m.s.)
                                                      Brother (w.s.)
Younger
                                                                        \ Younger.
            Father's brother
                                                      Brother's child (m.s.).
            Father's brother's wife ...
                                                      Husband's mother's child.
            Father's brother's child.
            Father's sister
                                                      Brother's child (m.s.).
            Father's sister's husband
                                                      Wife's brother's child.
                                                 ...
            Father's sister's child.
            Mother's brother
                                                      Sister's child (m.s.).
            Mother's brother's wife
                                                      Husband's sister's child.
                                                 •••
            Mother's brother's child.
            Mother's sister
                                                      Sister's child (w.s.).
            Mother's sister's husband
                                                      Wife's sister's child.
                                                 ...
            Mother's sister's child.
           Father's father
Grand-
                                                      Son's son (m.s.).
                                                 ...
 father. Father's mother
                                                        ,, ,, (w.s.).
                                                 ...
                                                                               Grandchild.
           Mother's father
                                                      Daughter's son (m.s.).
Grand-
                                                 ...
                                                                  " (w.s.).
 mother. (Mother's mother
                                                 ...
                                                      Wife.
            Husband
                                                      Wife.
Daughter's husband (m.s.) Son-in-
law.

Can's wife (m.s.). (W.s.) Daughter-
                                                 •••
            Wife's father
Father-
                                                 ...
 in-law.
           Wife's mother
                                     ...
                                                 ...
          Husband's father
Mother-
                                     ...
                                                 ...
                                                                                    in-law.
 in-law. (Husband's mother
                                                                (w.s.).
                                                 ...
                                                      Sister's husband (m.s.).
            Wife's brother
                                                 ...
            Wife's sister
                                                                         (w.s.).
                                     ...
                                                 ...
                                                      Brother's wife (m.s.).
            Husband's brother
                                                 ...
                                     ...
            Husband's sister
                                                                  " (w.s.).
            Wife's sister's husband.
            Husband's brother's wife.
            Son's wife's parents.
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(m.s.) = Man speaking.

(w.s.) = Woman speaking.

## APPENDIX B-I.

# TERMS OF RELATIONSHIP IN THE DIALECTS SPOKEN IN THE KODAUNG HILL TRACTS OF THE RUBY MINES DISTRICT.

Relationship.	Shan.	Lishaw.	Kachin.	Maru.	Lashi.	Szi.	Maing Kwin Palaung.	Humai Palaung.
1(a) What does a father call his	Luk-sai	Ngaw-za	Ngal-sha	Nga-saw	Nga-zaw	Nga-zaw	Ŭ-kawn	Kawn-i-mai,
son.  1(3) What does a son call his	Paw	Bi-bi	Wa	Nga-hpaw	Ā-hpn	Yi-wa	Ã-kūn	Kûn.
father. (3) What does a mother call her	Luk-ying	Ai-mė	Ngai-sha	Nga•saw	Nga-zaw-myi-	Nga-zaw	Ū-kawn	Kawn-ipan,
daughter. 2(b) What does a daughter call	Myå	Ма-та	wum-găsha. Nű	Nga-myi	Ezaw. A-myi	Yi-nu	Ā-ma	Mā,
her mother.	Nawng-saw	Ã-myo	Ngai-nau	Nga-nau	Ă-naw	Nga-gu	Ù-wa	Va-imai.
(b) What does a younger brother	Pyi-sai	Kō-kō	Hpu	Nga-mu	Å-mang	Yi-mang	Ŭ-byi	Pyi-mai.
(a) What does an elder sister	Nawng-ying	Ngaw-ni-ma	Ngai-nau	Nga-nau	Å-naw	Nga-gu	Ŭ-wa	Va-ipan.
(a) What does a younger sister.	Pyi-Saw	Chi-chi	Na	Nga-pai	Ã-be	Yi-na	Ŭ-byi	Pyi-i-pan.
efal What does an clder sister	Nawng-Sai	Å-þyi-thaw	Ngai-nau	Maung	Å-mung	Nga-gu	Ŭ-wa	Va-i-mai.
call her younger brother.  5(b) What does a younger	Pyi-Saw	Same as 4(b)	Na	Ā-bai	Ā-be	Yi-na	Ŭ-byi	Pyi-i-pan,
brother call his elder sister.  5(c) What does a younger sister	Pyi-Sai	Kō-kō	Hpu	Nga-mu	Ā-mang	Yi-mang	Ŭ-byi	Pyi-i-mai,
call her elder brother.  5(4) What does an elder brother		Nyi-man	Ngai-nau	Nga-nau	Nam-maw	Nga-gu	Ŭ-wa	Va-i-pan.
call his younger sister.  6(a) What does a man call his	Nawng-sau.	Ngaw-za	Ngai-sha	Nga-saw	Ngá-zaw	Nga-zaw	Ŭ-kawn	Kawn-i-mai
(clder or younger) brother's son.  C(b) What does a boy call his						(children) of younger bro- ther) Yi-zaw (children of elder brother).	-	Truttu-1 mais
father's —  (1) Elder 'brother	ı Taw-nung	Q-hpa	Wa-dl	Hpa-maw	Hpa-mu	Нра-то	Kun-an	Kun-dang
(2) Younger brother 6(e) What does a man call his (elder or younger) brother's daughter.	Z Taw-au Lau-ying	U-wō Ngaw-myi	Wa-toi Ngai-sha	Hpa-let Nga-saw	Hpă-htang Nga-zaw	Hpa-htang Nga-zaw	Kun-det U-kawn	Kun-det, Kawn-i-pan,
6(d) What does a girl call her father's— (1) Elder brother (2) Younger brother (3)	Same as 6(b)	Same as 6(8)	Same as 6(b)	Same as 6(b)	Same as 6(b)	Same as 6(b)	Same as 6(b)	Same as 6(b).
7(a) What does A's brother's	Same as 6(4) and 6(4).	Same as 6(a) and 6(c).	Same as 6(a) ani 6(c)	Same as 6(a) and 6(c).	Same as 6(4) and 6(c).	Same as 6(a)	Same as 6(a) and 6(c).	Same as 6(a) and 6(c).
wife call A's child, 7(b) What does A's child call— (1) A's elder brother's wife (2) A's younger brother's wife	ı Pa 2 Myé-lo	O-ma Zu-zaw	Nu-tung Nu-toi	Nga-maw Nga-let	1	Mi-maw Mi-htang	Ma-an Ma-det	Ma-dang Ma-det
8 What does A call his father's brother's	*				1			
(1) Son who is older than A (2) Son who is younger than A.	1 Pyi-sai 2 Nawng-sai	Kō-kō Ngaw-mye-tha	Hpu Nau	Nga-mu Nga-nau	A-mang A-naw	Yl-mang Nga-gu	Byi Wa	Pyi-i-mai Va-i-mai
(3) Daughter who is older than	3 Pyi-sau	Chi-chi	Na	Nga-pai	A-be	Yi-na	Byi-i-bau	Pyi-i-pau.
(4) Daughter who is younger than A.	4 Nawng-sau or Nawng- ying.	A-mye-tha	Nau	Nga-nau	Nam-maw	Nga-gu	Wa-i-bau	Va-i-pau.
9(a) What does A's (elder or younger) sister call A's daughter,	Ngaw-myi	Ngaw-sa-ma	Ngai-nam	Nga-tau	Nga-tu	Nga-du	Kawa	Pi.
9(b) What does A's daughter call—	D.		\r_:	Nas-no			٠.	
(1) A's elder sister (2) A's younger sister	1 Pa 2 Myd-1 or Mye-an.	Nye-nya Nye-nya	Moi	Ngā-na Nga-na	Ning-mu Ning-htang	Yi-moi Yi-moi	Kan Kan	Kan. Kan.
10(a) What does A's sister's husband call A's—  (1) Son  (2) Daughter	ı Lau-sii ı Lau-yıng	Ngaw-za-yā Ngaw-za-ma	}Ngai-nam	Naung-saw	Tu-maw	Nga-du	Kawn	{i Kawn. 2 Pi.
10(b) What does A's son or daughter call A's— (1) Elder sister's husband	r Nung	Vė-Ŭ	}Gu	Nga-vun	{1 Vang-mau 2 Vang-htang.	} v:_~ (	z Bè-u-dang	Bè-u-dang.
(2) Younger sister's husband  11 What does A call his father's	2 Akboi or Au-Khoi.				la Vang-htang.	} Y1-gn {	2 Bè-u-det	Bà-u-det.
sister's (1) Son older than A (2) Son younger than A	Same as 8	1 Kwaw-sū	Hkan	Nga-hkan	Khon	Hkon	}Same as 8	Same as 8.
(3) Daughter older than A	p (	. 3 Kwaw-ma	Ngai-hkri	Nga-uk	Sān-ok	Ning	, , ,	
12(a) What does B's brother call B's— (1) Son	r Law-sai	ı Ngaw-sa-zā	Ngai-hkri	Nga-tan	Saw-ok	Salar	Kawn	∫1 Lau-i-mai.
(2) Daughter 12(b) What does B's child call B's—	2 Law-ying		_			Sa-ou		2 Lau-i-pan.
(2) Younger brother  13(4) What does B's brother's	1 Paw-nung 2 Paw-au	Vu-vè-u	Sa	Ngal-ni	Yuk-hpaw	Yi-sa {	1 Bè-ü-dang 2 Bè-ü-det	Bè-ū-dang ' Bè-ū-det.
(1) Son (2) Daughter (3) What does B's child call	Same as	Same as 12(4)	Same as 12(4)	Same as 12(a)	Same as 12(a)	Same as 12(a)	Same as 12(a)	Same as 12(a).
(1) Elder brother's wife (2) Younger brother's wife	1 Mye-pa 2 Mye-a or Mye-au	A-nyi-Eh	Nyi	Nga-uk	Yuk-nu	Оп-тап	{1 Kan-dang 2 Kan-det	Kan-dang. Kan-det.
14 What does A call his mother's— (2) Elder or younger brother's son if latter older than A. (2) Elder or younger brother's son' if latter younger than A. (3) Elder or younger brother's daughter if older than A. (4) Elder or younger brother's daughter if younger than A.	Same as 8	{	1} Hkau 3} Rat Ngai- 4} nam.		Hkon 2 Bà 4 Nawng-zaw	1 Yi-mang 2 Nga-gu '3 Yi-na ; Nga-gu	}Same as 3 {	1} Pi. 3} Pé-o.

## APPENDIX B-I-concluded.

TERMS OF RELATIONSHIP IN THE DIALECTS SPOKEN IN THE KODAUNG HILL TRACTS OF THE RUBY MINES DISTRICT.

· · ·		· 	1	•				
Relationship,	Shan,	Lishaw.	Kaçhin.	Maru.	Lashi.	Szi.	Maing Kwin Palaung.	Humal Palaung.
15(a) What does B's sister call B's daughter. 15(b) What does B's daughter call B's—	Lauying	Naw-za	Ngai-sha	Nga-zaw	Ă-zaw	Nga-zaw	Å-byi	Kawn-i-pau,
(1) Elder sister (2) Younger sister 16(4) What does B's sister's husband call B's—	r Pa-saw 2 Mye-na	Oma Zu-zaw	Nu-tung Nu-toi	Nga-maw Nga-htaw	Myè-maw Myè-htang	Mi-maw Mi-htang	Ma-au Ma-det ·	Ma-dang, Ma-det,
(1) Son (2) Daughter	Law-sal Law-ying	A-bye-tha A-myi-tha	Ngal-sha	Nga-zaw	A•zaw	Nga-zaw	Kawn	Kawn,
(1) Elder sister's husband (2) Younger sister's husband	Pa-nung Na-hkwoi	O-hpa Vo-vo	Wa-di Wa-toi	Hpa-maw Hpa-let	Hpa-maw Hpa-htang	Hpa-maw Hpa-htang	Knn-an Kun-det	Kun-dang. Kun-det.
17 What does A call his mother's sister's child, 18(4) What does A's father call A's—	Same as 8	Same as 8	Same as 8	Same as 8	Same as 8	Same as 8	Same as 8	Same as 8.
(1) Son (2) Daughter	t Lau-sal 2 Lau-ying Pw-awk	Li-pa Li-ma A-pa	Ngai-sha Ji-hkai	Ngal-myit Nga-hpak	Myit-zaw	Nga-shu Yi-chi	Lawn Dà-awk	{ t Lan-i-mai. { 2 Law-i-pan. Pa-awk.
18(6) What does A's mother call A's son or daughter.	Same as 18(a)	Same as 18(a)	Same as 18(4)	Same as 18(4)	Same as 18(a)	Same as 18(a)	Same as 18(a)	Same as 18(4).
18(d) What does a son or daughter call A's mother.  18(e) What does B's father or mother call B's—	Ya-awk	Ã-2ā	Wò-hkai	Ngai-hpyit	Å-hpyit	Yi-woi	Ya-awk	Ya-awk.
(1) Son (2) Daughter 13(f) What does B's son or daughter call—	Same as 18(a) and 18(c)	Same as 18(4) and 18(c).	Same as 18(a) and 18(c).	Same as 18(a) and 18(c).	Same as 18(a) and 18(c).	Same as 18(a) and 18(c).	Same as 18(a) and 18(c).	Same as 18(a) and 18(c).
(1) B's father (2) B's mother 19(a) What does a' man call his wife,	r Pu-nai 2 Ya-nai Mye	Ä-pā A-hpaw A-byl-tha-i- mau.	Ji-dwi Wò-dwi Ngai-sha-gaun	Hpuk-kai Nga-bpyit Nga-zaw-un	Ä-hpon Ä-hpyit Nga-zaw-un	Yi-chi Yi-woi Nga-zaw	Da-nai Ya-nai U-ya	Ta-nai. Ya-nai. I-pan-an (dur-
19(b) What does a woman call her husband,	Нро	A-byi-tha-i- hpau.	Nga-sha kawa	Nga-zaw-yo hpaw.	Nga-zaw-hpu	Yang-nu. Nga-zaw yang- wa.	Ŭ-da	ing prime.) Ya (when old). U-mai (during prime).
20(4) What does B's father's or mother call B's husband, 20(4) What does B's husband call B's—	Luk, Khwoi or Luk-mau.	Ngaw-mih	Ngai-hku	Nga-ok	Zaw-ouk	Sa-on	Ŭ-hkwoi	U-Ja-an (when old). Men.
(1) Father (2) Mother	r Paw-saw 2 Mye-sau or	Bā-bā Mā-mā	Sa Ni .	Nga•nyi Nga•na	Yuk-hpaw Yuk-ni	Yi-sa On-maw	Bè-u Ù-kan	Bé-u.
20(6) What does A's father or mother call A's wife, 20(4) What does A's wife call A's—	Awk-nai. Luk-paü	SI-ma	Ngai-nam	Tan-maw	Tu-nam	Tu-maw	Bai	Kan, . Pi,
(1) Father (2) Mother	} Same as 20(b)	Same as 20(b)	{ r Gu 2 Mol	Ngă-vung Ngă-na	Vang-maw Ning-maw	Yl-gu Yi-mol	Tawchaw or Be-u-kan,	Pé-u-Kau
(1) If latter is older than he (2) If latter is younger than he	r Pyi-Ukwoi or Pyi-man, 2 Nawng- hkwoi or Nawng- man,	Myi-shò	Hkan	Nga-hkan	Hkon	Hkan	{ Yi-ek 2 Nawng- khwoi.	} Men.
21(b) What does B's husband call B's brother— (1) if latter is older than he	As above {	1 Kő-kö 2 Kô-kō	As above		,			
(2) If latter is younger than he 22(a) What does B's sister call	, ,	2 Ko-ko		As above	As above	As above	{ 1 Man-dang 2 Man-det	r Yuk. 2 Va.
B's husband— (1) if latter is older than she	Pyi-hkwoi- hkam	Chi-fū	G11	Ngă-maw	A-vang	Yi-gu	Yi-ek	Va.
(2) if latter is younger than she 22(b) What does B's husband call B's—	Nawng-hkwoi hkam.	Myi-shè	Rat	Ngā-nan	Ă-be	Yi-rat	Nawng-khwoi	Yuk.
(1) Elder sister (2) Younger sister (3) What does A's—	r Pyi-san 2 Nawng-saw or Na-san.	Chi-chi A-mye-than	Rat Ngai-nam	Ngā-bai Ngā-nan	Be Naung-zaw	Yi-rat Tu-maw	Mai-dang Wa	I-un. Va.
(1) Elder brother (2) Younger brother call A's wife. 23(b) What does A's wife call—	ı Nawng-pāu 2 Pyl-lo	Nye-ma Ma-la	Ngai-nam Rat	Ngai-nan Naung-zaw	Naung-zaw Be	Tu-maw Yi-rat	Bai Aw .	iPi. ĀĻ
(1) A's elder brother (2) A's younger brother 24(a) What does—	r Pyl-mau 2 Nawng-man	Kō•kō A-byè-thaw .	Gu Rat	Nga-bai Nga-maw	Naung-zaw Mang	Nga-gu Yi-rat	Yi-ck	Yuk. Va.
(1) A's clder sister (2) A's younger sister call A's wife, 24(b) What does A's wife call—	1 Nawng-paü 2 Pyi-nang or Pyi-sau.	A-myc-tha Mā-lā	} Ning	r Nga-nan 2 Nga-pai	Yuk-maw	Yisning		Pi. Ai.
(1) A's elder sister (2) A's younger sister (3) What does A call his wife's—	r Pyi-saw 2 Nawog-san	Çhi-chi A-myo-than	} Ning	1 Yuk-maw 2 Ngă-nan	Yuk-maw		{ 1 Aw   2 Bò-i	Ăi. Va.
(1) Elder sister's husband (2) Younger sister's husband 26 What does a woman call her	r Pyl-hkwoi 2 Nawng hkwoi.	Chi-fu Myi-shè	Hpu Ngai-nan	Nga-maw Nga-nan	(I forgot to ask about this).	Yi-mang Nga-gu	Byi	{
husband's—  (1) Elder brother's wife  (2) Younger brother's wife	1 Pyi-nang 2 Nawng-sau	Ma-la A-mye-than	Na Ngai-nau	Nga-pai Nga-nan	Pyi-maw		Ma-dang Ma-det	I-un. Pi.
wife's parent's or father and mother.	} Paw-lawng 3 Mye-lawng	Bā-bā Mā-mā		Ngā-hkan Ngā-na			Bà-u	Pà. Kan.
1	Non	PF - Infallifat af-t-			<u> </u>			

## APPENDIX B-II.

TERMS OF RELATIONSHIP IN THE DIALECTS OF THE TAWNPENG STATE, NORTHERN SHAN STATES.

## Miao Language.

3. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9.	Son  Mother  Daughter  Elder brother (m.s.)  Younger brother (m.s.)  Younger sister (w.s.)  Younger sister (w.s.)  Elder sister (m.s.)  Elder brother (w.s.)	Na. Mingsai. Ti-lao. Nyit kü. Tai-lao. Na hlwa. Mwa. Nö or yütlam.	31. 32. 33. 34. 35. 36. 37.	Father's mother Son's son (m.s.) (w.s.) Mother's father Mother's mother Daughter's son (m.s.) (w.s.) Husband	Kumbao. Yiö. Baw. Mit kü. Yiö-kung. Baw-kung. Tsit kü. Kai-yö.
9.	Elder sister (m.s.)	Mwa.	- •		
					Kai-yö.
	Younger brother (w.s.)		39.	Wife	Kapo.
	Father's brother	Tsunzur.		Wife's father	
13.	Brother's child	Döan dū.		Wife's mother	
	Father's brother's wife	Nazur.		Daughter's husband	Rö.
	Husband's mother's child	Nyit kü.		(m.s.) (w.s.)	> -
	Father's brother's child	Nyit kü.		Husband's father	
	Father's sister	Paw-nyan.	44.	Son's wife (m.s.) (w.s.)	Myinya.
	Brother's child (w.s.)	Nyit ku.		Husband's mother	
	Father's sister's husband	Sa-gwi-yi.		Wife's brother	Yüt hlan.
	Wife's brother's child	Nö-kü.		Wife's sister	Na hlaw.
	Father's sister's child	Na-hlwa.		Sister's husband (m.s.)	Tsa lo.
	Mother's brother	Tsutlang.		(w.s.)	30-11
23.	Sister's child	Yao-yi.		TT 1 11 1,	Yūt hlan.
24.	Mother's brother's wife	Elao.		Husband's sister	Hmwa.
	Husband's sister's child Mother's brother's child	Mwa. Nö ku.		Brother's wife (m.s.)	
	Mother's sister	Tai.	<b>F</b> 0	(w.s.) Wife's sister's husband	Tuhlan.
	Sister's child (w.s.)	Kum bao.	54.	Husband's brother's wife	I SU 10.
	Mother's sister's husband	Tagwiyi.		Son's wife's parents	Nan tsu. Chua.
£9.	mother a sister a husband	145111111	34.	cons whee parents	Cuua.

### Lihsaw Language.

		Baba.		er's sister's	hus-	A-wü.
3.	Son		31. Wife'	band. 's sister's chi	ld	Zadu.
4· 5.	Daughter Elder brother (m.s.)	Ami. Koko.		er's sister's o er's father	chiid	Zadu. Ala.
	Younger brother (m.s.)		4. Fathe	r's mother	1.4	'A-pye.
7-	Elder sister (w.s.)	75 .	5. Son's	son (m.s.) (	w.s.)	Lippa.
	Younger sister (w.s.)	Nyima.		er's father		Ala.
	Elder sister (m.s)	Akyi.		er's mother		
	Younger sister (m.s.)	Nyima.		hter's son	(m.s.)	Lippa.
	Elder brother (w.s.)		) 			<b>7</b>
	Younger brother (w.s.)			and	•••	Za-gu.
	Father's brother	A-wo.		···	•••	
	Brother's child (m.s.)	Zadu.		s father	***	Baba.
	Father's brother's wife	Emaro.		's mother		Mama.
	Husband's mother's child			nter's husban	a (m.s)	Mè.
	Father's brother's child	Zadu.				
	Father's sister	Nyanya.		and's father		Baba.
	Brother's child (w.s.)	Zadu.		and's mother		
	Father's sister's husband	A wū.	10. Son s	wife (m.s.)	(w.s.)	
	Wife's brother's child	Zadu.		's brother	•••	3 '
	Father's sister's child	A-pa.		's sister	, •••	Nama.
	Mother's brother	O-ma.		's husband	(m.s.)	Je-lü.
	Sister's child	Zadu.				
	Mother's brother's wife	A wü.		and's brothe		Na-la.
	Husband's sister's child		i. Broth	ers wite	(m.s.)	Zanungma.
	Mother's brother's child	Zadu.			, ,	** 6.7
	Mother's sister	Nyan nyan.	2. Wife'	s sister's h	usband	
29.	Sister's child (w.s.)	Zadu.	3. Husba	and's brother	's wife	Nyi-sü.
			4. Jon's	wife's pare	nts	Zinja.

#### APPENDIX B-II-continued.

TERMS OF RELATIONSHIP IN THE DIALECTS OF THE TAWNPENG STATE, NORTHERN SHAN STATES.

## La or Wa Language.

				-	
ı.	Father	Kün.	30.	Mother's sister's husband	Apao.
2.	Mother	Ma.	31.	Wife's sister's child	Gwaniao.
3.	Son	Gwanbi.		Mother's sister's child	Gwaniao.
	Daughter	Gwan-pun.		Father's father	Awk bi.
	Elder brother (m.s.)	A-kye.		Father's mother	Awk pun.
	Younger brother (m s.)	Hpu.		Mother's father	Nai-bi.
	Elder sister (w.s.)	A-kye.		Mother's mother	Nai-pun.
	Younger sister (w.s.)	A-hpo.		Son's son (m.s.) (w.s.)	Gwansoi.
	Elder sister (m.s.)	A-kye.		Daughter's son (m.s.)	
	Younger sister (m.s.)	A-hpo.	<b>J</b> - •	(w.s.)	
	Elder brother (w.s.)	A-kye.	30.	Husband	Bi.
	Younger brother (w.s.)	A-hpo.		Wife	Pan.
	Father's brother	Kuniao.		Wife's father	Nai-bi.
	Brother's child (m.s.)	Hpo.		Wife's mother	Nai-pun.
	Father's brother's wife	Ma-iao.		Daughter's husband	Ke.
	Husband's mother's child	A-hpo.		(m.s.) (w.s.)	
17.	Father's brother's child	Hpo.		Husband's father	Awk bi.
ı 8.	Father's sister	Ma-iao.	45.	Husband's mother	Awk pun.
19.	Brother's child (w.s.)	Hpo.	46.	Son's wife (m.s.) (w.s.)	Pūn,
20.	Father's sister's husband	A-pao.	47.	Wife's brother	Hpo.
21.	Wife's brother's child	Iao.	48.	Wise's sister, elder	Ji.
22.	Mother's brother	Λ-pao.	49.	Wife's sister, younger	Нро.
23.	Sister's child (m.s.)	Ma-iao.	50.	Sister's husband (m.s.)	Ük.
24.	Mother's brother's wife	Hpaw.		(w.s.)	•
	Husband's sister's child	Gwaniao.	51.	Brother's wife (m.s.)	Hpo.
	Mother's brother's child	Gwaniao.		(w.s.)	•
27.	Mother's sister, elder	A-ting.	52.	Wife's sister's husband	Hpo.
	Mother's sister, younger	Ma-iao.		Husband's brother's wife	Pûn.
	Sister's child (w.s.)	Gwaniao.	54.	Son's wife's parents	Dona.
-	·		-	-	
	D	ala I augusas	1 11	autour Dalon	

#### Pale Language (Mantong Pales).

			, ,	
	Father Son	Gun. Gawnaroi.	27. Mother's brother's child	Shan "lan" is used.
	Mother		28. Mother's sister	
	Daughter	Goi ban	29. Mother's sister's husband	
4.	Elder brother (m.s.)	Ekat.	30. Wife's sister's child	Shan "lan"
- 6.	Younger brother (m.s.)	Wa.	J-1 1/12-1-1-1-1-1-1-1-1-1-1-1-1-1-1-1-1-1-1	is used.
	Elder sister (w.s.)	Ekat.	31. Mother's sister's child	Gawnaroi.
	Younger sister (w.s.)	Wa.	32. Father's father	Da.
	Elder sister (m.s.)	Ekat.	33. Father's mother	Ya.
	Younger sister (m.s.)	Wa.	34. Son's son (m.s.) (w.s.)	Shan "lan"
	Elder brother (w.s.)	Ekat.	37.	is used.
	Younger brother (w.s)	Wa.	35. Mother's father	Da.
13.	Father's brother	Guntia.	36. Mother's mother	Ya,
	Brother's child (w.s.)	No word-	37. Daughter's son (m.s.)	Shan "lan"
•	( , ,	Shan "lan"	(w.s.)	is used.
		is used.	38. Husband	E-mai.
15.	Father's brother's wife	Madao.	39. Wife '	Aw.
	Husband's mother's child	Wa.	40. Wife's father	Da.
17.	Father's brother's child	Gawnaroi.	41. Daughter's husband	I-ya.
13.	Father's sister	Gun.	42. Wife's mother	Gun.
19.	Brother's child	No word-	43. Husband's father	Bü.
		Shan "lan"	44. Son's wife (m.s.) (w.s.)	Aw.
		is used.	45. Husband's mother	Gun.
	Father's sister's husband	Mö.	40. Wife's brother	Bü.
21.	Wife's brother's child	No word—	47. Sister's husband	Madao.
		Shan "lan"	48. Husband's brother	Aw.
		is used.	49. Brother's wife (m.s.)	Madao.
	Father's sister's child	Do.	(w.s.)	***
	Muther's brother	Bü.	50. Husband's sister	
* *	Sister a d Rid	Shan "Jan"		Guntia.
	** * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *	is used.	52. Husband's brother's wife	
	Manure's brother's wife	Aw.	53. Son's wife's parents	Sinchia.
****	Halland's poter's child	Gun.		

## APPENDIX B-II—continued.

## Terms of Relationship in the dialects of the Tawnpeng State, Northern Shan States.

## Pale Language (Man-wun Pales).

	Father Mother	U. (Shan). Mè (Shan).	25. Mother's sister's husband.	Paü.
	Son	Gawnmiai.		Lan (Shan).
	Daughter	~ `	27. Father's father	Awk,
	Elder brother (m.s.)		•	Len.
	Elder sister (m.s.) (w.s.)		29. Mother's father	Awk.
· ·	Younger brother (m.s.)	Và miai		Len.
		TC man.	31. Daughter's son	Den.
	(W.S.)	Và nan	32. Son's son \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \	Lan (Shan).
0.	Younger sister (m.s.)	ye han.	32. CON 3 30n <b>y</b>	•
_	(W.S.)	٨٠		Tai.
	Father's brother			Yè.
	Brother's child			Paü.
11.	Father's brother's wife	Mädeng.		Kan.
12.	Husband's mother's	Na-mao.	37. Daughter's husband	Lukkoi
	child.		(m.s.) (w.s.)	
	Father's brother's child		38. Husband's father	
	Father's sister		39. Husband's mother	
15.	Brother's child	Lan (Shan).	40. Son's wife (m.s) (w.s.)	Luk paü.
16.	Father's sister's husband	Nawngkoi.	41. Wife's brother	Amao.
17	Wife's brother's child	A-mao.	42. Wife's sister	Ma-i.
18.	Father's sister's child	Lan (Shan).	43. Sister's husband (m.s.)	Kundet.
	Sister's child		(w.s.)	
	Mother's brother, elder		44. Husband's brother	Amao
21	Mother's brother,	A-mao.	45. Husband's sister	
	younger.		46. Brother's wife	
22	Mother's brother's child	Lan (Shan).	47. Wife's sister's husband	
	. Mother's sister		48. Husband's brother's wife	
		Lan.	49. Son's wife's parents	Kan.
24	. Sister's child (w.s.)	Lall.	49. Jou's wife's parents	ızdıı.

### Pale Language (Kongweng Pales).

•		Father	Gun.	23. Mother's sister's Kunrang, husband.	
		Mother	Ma.		
٠		Son	Gawn.	24. Mother's sister's child Madang.	
		Daughter	Gawnpan.	25. Wife's sister's child Gawn made	ŧ.
		Elder brother (m.s.)	Pi (Shan).	26. Father's father Ta-awk.	
	6.	Younger brother (m.s.)	Wa-mai.	27. Father's mother Ya-awk.	
	7.	Elder sister (m.s.) (w.s.)	Pi-nang	28. Mother's father Ta-nai.	
	•		(Shan).	29. Mother's mother Ya-nai.	
	8.	Younger sister (m.s.)	Wa-pan.	30. Son's son	
		(w.s.)	•	31. Daughter's son Lan (Shan)	•
	٥.	Father's brother	Gunda.	32. Husband Ta.	
		Brother's child (m.s.)	Gawn-pi-sai	33. Wife Kaya.	
		2-0()	or Gawnwa	34. Wife's father Ta-mai.	
			(Shan).	35. Wife's mother Kan.	
	t t	Father's brother's wife	Pe.	36. Husband's father Wa-pe.	
		Husband's mother's	Wa.	37. Husband's mother Kan.	
	~	child.		38. Daughter's husband Yuk.	
	* 0	Father's brother's child	Gawndet.	39. Son's wife Bi.	
	٠,٠	Father's sister	Kan.	4c. Wife's brother Pe.	
		Brother's child (w.s.)	Gawn-pi	41. Sister's husband Yuk.	
	<u>.</u> 5.	Diother's child (w.s.)	, (Shan).	42. Wife's sister, elder Madang.	
	-6	Father's sister's husband	Pe.	43. Wife's sister, younger Madet.	
		Wife's brother's child	Gawn-pe. Pe.	31	•
		Mother's brother	-	(Shan).	
	19.	Sister's child	Dawn-pinang	45. Husband's brother Mao.	
		YY 1 12 1 1.11.3	(Shan).	46. Husband's sister Wa-lu.	
		Husband's sister's child	Wa-ao.	47. Wife's sister's husband Kundet.	
		Mother's brother's child		48. Husband's brother's Madet.	
	22,	Mother's sister	Madet.	wife.	
				49. Son's wife's parents Pe.	

#### APPENDIX B-II—continued.

TERMS OF RELATIONSHIP IN THE DIALECTS OF THE TAWNPENG STATE, NORTHERN SHAN STATES.

									•
				Pale Langua	age (	Huleng P	ales).		
Ĭ.,	Father		•••	Gās.	28.	Mother's el	der sister	•••	Gawn ma-an
	Mother	•••	•••	Nia.		Mother's yo			C 1
	Son			Gawaimwa.	20	Father's fat	her		~
	Daughter	***	• • •	Goi-pan.		Father's mo		•••	Guna.
		(m. m) (m. m)	•••						Ma-aw.
Ď.	Elder brother	(m.s) $(w.s)$	•••	Pi-mao.		Mother's fa		•••	Ya-awk.
t.	Younger broth	er (m.s.) (w	.s.)	Waimwa.	33-	Mother's me	other	•••	Ya-nai.
7.	Elder sister (n	n.s.) (w.s.)		Pitabya.		Son's son	7	l	Lan-i-mwa.
8.	Younger sister	(m.s.) (w.s.)	· · · ·	Waratabya.	35-	Daughter's	son	}	Lauri-miya.
o.	Father's broth	er	•••	Pi-hpan.		Son's daugh		)	
	Brother's child			Gawnganan.		Daughter's		<b>}</b>	Lan-i-pwan.
	Father's broth			Ma-an.	38.	Husband	55		Imwa.
	Father's broth		•••	Gawnpinan.	20.	Wife		•••	_
			•••				•••	• • •	I-pana.
	Husband's brot			Mame mwa		Wife's fathe			Та-паі.
	Father's sister		•••	Ganni.		Wife'smoth			Ya-паі.
	Brother's child		•••	Gawn-ganan,		Daughter's l			Kwe (Shan)
IÛ.	Father's sister'	s husband		Biao.	43.	Son's wife	• • •	•••	Lukpaā (Shan).
17-	Wife's brother	's child	••-	Gawn-maan.	44.	Husband's f	ather	•••	Biao-wa.
	Father's sister'			Gawn kan.		Husband's r		***	C .
	Mother's broth		•••	Biao.		Wife's broti			Eiao.
						Sister's hush			***
	Sister's child (		•••	Gawn biao.		Wife's siste		•••	Wa.
	Mother's broth		••	Gan.				•••	
	Mother's broth		•••	Gawn gan.		Husband's b			Bizo.
23.	Mother's sister	, elder		Ma-an.		Brother's w			Biao.
24.	Mother's sister	, younger	•••	Mader		Husband's			Wa.
25.	Sister's child (	w.s.)		Gawn gan.	52.	Wife's siste	r's husband	d	Nawngkwè (Shan)
	Mother's sister		•••	~		Husband's b			
	Wife's sister's			Gawn madet.		Son's wife's			Biao.
<i>≟ j</i> .	17110 5 51510. 5	Ciinu	•••		-	-	Parones	. •••	2.40.
				Palaun	ig L	anguage.			•
	Easter			Kán.	_	Mother's sis	ter		An-i-pun.
	Father	•••	•••		٠٠.	Sistar's obil	d (m a t		Kwan vi-dang
	Son	•••	•••	Kwan-i-me.	33.	Sister's chil	u (W.S.)	1	
	Mother			Ma.	3+	Mother's sis	ster's nuso		An-i-me.
4.	Daughter			Kwan-i-pun	35.	Wife's siste	rs child	•••	
5.	Elder brother			Vi-dang.	ვნ.	Father's fat	her		Ta.
	Younger broth			Wa-i-me.	37-	Son's son (	m.s.)		Su.
7	Elder sister (n	· = ':		Di-dang.	38.	Father's mo	ther		Ya.
			•••	Wa.	20	Son's son (v	1.2.3		
	Younger sister				J9-	Mother's far	har		T-
	Elder sister (m		• • •	Di-dang.	40.	110th-15 14:		•••	
	Elder brother			Vi-dang.	41.	Daughter's	son (m.s.)	•••	
11.	Younger sister	` {::a.s.}		Wa-i-pun.	42.	Daughter's	son (w.s.)	•••	Su.
	Younger broth			Wa-I-me.	43-	Mother's mo	other	•-•	Ya
13.	Father's elder	bruiber		Au-i-me.	44.	Husband		••	Ra-le or E-me. Kun-i.
	Father's young				45.	Wife	•••		I-pun or Ma-i.
	Eller brother			Kwan-vi-dang	45.	Wife's fathe	r		Pō.
					47.	Daughter's	husband (n	as.)	Lu-Kuei.
1 / 4	Younger broth	ر هامه دینا در ماند در ماند داشت از ماند شا	(2.2.5 .7.5	As I man	40	Wife's moth	ier		Kan.
	Father's elder			An-i-pun.	40	Daughter's	heshard (a	r = }	Lu Kuei.
15.	Father's young	er promer	s wile		49.	U.shand's	inespand (r		Pō.
	Husband's m		d	Kwan-vi.	50.	Husband's	atiti	•••	1 48
29.	Father's broth	per's child		Vi-dang(same	51.	Son's wife (	m.s.)	•••	I-dő.
				terms as for	52.	Son's wife	(w.e.)		I-do.
				trothers and	53.	Husband's	nother		VI.
				sisters).	54.	Wife's broth	er		Vi.
21.	Putter's elder	slater		VI-35.	55.	Sister's hasi	oand (m.s.)		Vi.
2.	. Kather's pair	-,,- 6:2+,,-	***		5Ó.	Sister's hus	band (w.s.)	••••	Vi.
2.2	ปังหนึ่งทั้งไม่		***	Kwan-vi-dang	57	Wife's siste	r		An-i-pun.
	. Paliters il le				27.	Husband's	hrother	• • •	Vi.
				Pt.	53.	Brother's w	iie (m.e.)		De
- 3		is Cuill		ka-dang.	٠٤٠ ۽	Didiner 2 1	::- ( ~ :	•••	Vi.
- 7	. Pather's succe . This readent	freal.	•••	Vi-dang.	50.	Brother's w	ne (wa.;		Vi.
				Pa-Jaug.	91.	Husband's s	ister		
÷.	8 35 (	12.00				Wife's siste			An-i-me.
و س		ing 'n dille				Husband's		iie	Vi.
* *		5 8 5 5 5 6		Padang. Walang	54.	Soa's wife's	parents	•••	Po (iziter).
				Tital of	•		•		Kan (mother)
-				ాగ్ ముగ్కట్టా. డి.మీ.కుండు మహిక చేయోంక్రం		. <b>;</b>			
	4-444	مه کشت محد در							
					HERS	(ELDER)		_	7* 2.*-
	₩ n <sup>-</sup>	•,	~ ,			Frank	***	•••	
	4m <sup>2</sup> 4	se-		a Parama		#75.475 #75.475	***		Totalia Totalia
	* ' \$	•	*	بيبث ومستصفوا فأ		Sitt			
		د ۱۰	7123	Nounces,			SISTERS		
	-	14 10 11	n.,	Samana		Elist		D	المنتشج.
	Marriage and its remarks beautiful and		- <b>:</b> -	ha uta			ic.	ic.	lie
-									

## APPENDIX B-III-continued.

TERMS OF RELATIONSHIP IN THE DIALECTS OF HSIPAW STATE, NORTHERN SHAN STATES.

Shan.

## APPENDIX B-III-continued.

TERMS OF RELATIONSHIP IN THE DIALECTS OF HSIPAW STATE, NORTHERN SHAN STATES.

#### Palaung : Humong.

Father                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                         .		Fataung:	riumong.	•
Sister (m.s.)   Wa   -i-hpan   20.   Wa   Mother's father   Ta   Mother's brother   Ta   Mother's brother's child   Mai-i-wa.   21.   So   Mother's   Yā   mother.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.			18. ] ; ; Father's father	Tā.
Sister (m.s.)   Wa   -i-hpan   20.   Wa   Mother's father   Ta   Mother's brother   Ta   Mother's brother's child   Mai-i-wa.   21.   So   Mother's   Yā   mother.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.   1-mai.	3. Elder brother (m.s.)	Wai.	19 [ Father's mother	Yā.
7. Father's brother's wife 8. Father's brother's child 9. Father's sister 10. Father's sister 11. Father's sister's child 11. Father's sister's child 12. Mother's brother 13. Mother's brother's wife 14. Mother's brother's child 15. Mother's brother's child 16. Mother's sister 17. Mother's sister 18. Father's sister's child 19. Father's sister's child 19. Father's sister's child 10. Father's sister's child 11. Father's sister's child 12. Mother's brother's wife 13. Mother's brother's wife 14. Mother's brother's child 15. Mother's sister 16. Mother's sister 17. Mother's sister's husband 17. Mother's sister's child 18. Father's sister's child 19. Father's sister's husband 10. Wai-i-hpan 11. Father's sister's child 12. Wai-i-hpan 12. Mother's brother's child 13. Mother's brother's child 14. Mother's brother's wife 15. Mother's sister 16. Mother's sister's husband 17. Mother's sister's husband 18. Wife's sister 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 19. Wai-i-hpan 1	Elder Sister (m. a.)	Wà ) - i haan	20. The Mother's father	Tā,
8. Father's brother's child         Wai-i-wa.         22. Husband         I-mai.           9. Father's sister         Kan.         Yo.           10. Father's sister's child         Wai-i-hpan:         Wai-i-hpan:         Wife's mother         Kān.           12. Mother's brother         Wai-i-hpan:         Wai-i-hpan:         Wife's mother         Kān.           13. Mother's brother's wife         Kawu pö.         Za.         Husband's         Kān.           14. Mother's brother's child         Wai-i-wa.         Za.         Wife's brother         Wān.           15. Mother's sister         Te.         29. Husband's brother         Pö dang: pö dyat.         Kun-an.           16. Mother's sister's husband.         Kun an.         31. Wife's sister         Kun-an.         Kun-an.           16. Mother's sister's child.         Kawn te.         33. Son's wife's parents         Kun-an.           17. Mother's sister's child.         Kawn-i-hpan.         Son's son (m.s.)         Sao.           18. Wai-i-mai.         Kawn-i-mai.         Son's son (w.s.)         Sao.           20. Daughter         Wai-i-mai.         Son's son (w.s.)         Sao.           34. Younger sister (w.s.)         Wai-i-mai.         Son's son (w.s.)         Sao.           4. Younger sister (w.s.)	6. Father's brother	Kun-an.	<b>-</b>	Ῡ́ā.
11. Father's sister's child   Wai-i-hpan : wa-e-mè.   25.   Wife's mother   Kān.     12. Mother's brother     Pö dang : Pö dyat.   26.   Wife's brother   Kān.     13. Mother's brother's wife   Kawu pö.   26.   Wife's brother   Kān.     14. Mother's brother's child   Wai-i-wa.   27. Wife's brother     Pö dang : pō dyat.   28. Wife's sister     Tē.   29. Husband's brother     Kaun-an.   30. Husband's brother     Kaun-an.   32. Husband's brother's wife   Aw.   Pö.   Aw.   Pö.     15. Mother's sister's husband.   32. Husband's brother's wife   Aw.   Pö.   Pö.     16. Mother's sister's husband.   32. Husband's brother's wife   Aw.   Pö.     17. Mother's sister's child.   Kawn-i-hpan.   14.   Pi.   Son's son (m.s.)     Sao.   Son's wife's parents   Pö.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   Sao.   S	8. Father's brother's child	Wai-i-wa.	22. Husband	
13. Mother's brother's wife   Kawu pö.     14. Mother's brother's child   Wai-i-wa.     15. Mother's sister   Tè.     16. Mother's sister's husband.     17. Mother's sister's child   Kawn te.     18. Mother's sister's husband.     19. Mother's sister's husband.     10. Mother's sister's child     11. Son   Kawn-i-mai.     12. Daughter   Kawn-i-hpan.     13. Mother's brother's child     14. Wife's sister   Kun-an.     15. Mother's sister's husband   Myat.     16. Mother's sister's husband   Muh-an.     17. band.   Son's wife's parents       18. Wife       19. Son's son (m.s.)   Sao.     19. Son's son (w.s.)   Sao.     10. Brother   Kawn kun-an.     11. Husband's mother's child (m.s.)   Kawn kun-an.     12. Brother's child (m.s.)   Kawn kun-an.     13. Mother's brother's husband's brother   Kun-an.     14. Deal of the sister   Kun-an.     15. Son's son (m.s.)   Sao.     16. Son's son (m.s.)   Sao.     17. Edition   Son's son (w.s.)   Sao.     18. Wife         19. Edition   Muhaman       10. Sister's child (m.s.)   Kawn kun-an.     10. Sister's child (m.s.)   Kwan pö.     11. Husband's sister's child   Kwan pö.     12. Daughter's brother's busband (m.s.)       13. Mife's sister   Kun-an.     14. Deal of sister's son (m.s.)   Sao.     15. Son's son (m.s.)   Sao.     16. Son's son (m.s.)   Sao.     17. Edition   Sao.       18. Wife         19. Edition         10. Sister's child (m.s.)       10. Sister's child (m.s.)       11. Husband's sister's child   Kwan pö.       12. Daughter's brother's kild       13. Wife's sister's husband (m.s.)       14. Deal of sister's son (m.s.)       15. Daughter's son (m.s.)       16. Daughter's son (m.s.)       17. Edition         18. Wife         19. Edition         19. Edition         19. Edition         19. Edition         19. Edition         19. Edition			Wife's mother	•
13. Mother's brother's wife   Kawu pö.     14. Mother's brother's child   Wai-i-wa.     15. Mother's sister   Tè.     16. Mother's sister's husband.     17. Mother's sister's child   Kawn te.     18. Mother's sister's husband.     19. Mother's sister's husband.     10. Mother's sister's child     11. Son   Kawn-i-mai.     12. Daughter   Kawn-i-hpan.     13. Mother's brother's child     14. Wife's sister   Kun-an.     15. Mother's sister's husband   Myat.     16. Mother's sister's husband   Muh-an.     17. band.   Son's wife's parents       18. Wife       19. Son's son (m.s.)   Sao.     19. Son's son (w.s.)   Sao.     10. Brother   Kawn kun-an.     11. Husband's mother's child (m.s.)   Kawn kun-an.     12. Brother's child (m.s.)   Kawn kun-an.     13. Mother's brother's husband's brother   Kun-an.     14. Deal of the sister   Kun-an.     15. Son's son (m.s.)   Sao.     16. Son's son (m.s.)   Sao.     17. Edition   Son's son (w.s.)   Sao.     18. Wife         19. Edition   Muhaman       10. Sister's child (m.s.)   Kawn kun-an.     10. Sister's child (m.s.)   Kwan pö.     11. Husband's sister's child   Kwan pö.     12. Daughter's brother's busband (m.s.)       13. Mife's sister   Kun-an.     14. Deal of sister's son (m.s.)   Sao.     15. Son's son (m.s.)   Sao.     16. Son's son (m.s.)   Sao.     17. Edition   Sao.       18. Wife         19. Edition         10. Sister's child (m.s.)       10. Sister's child (m.s.)       11. Husband's sister's child   Kwan pö.       12. Daughter's brother's kild       13. Wife's sister's husband (m.s.)       14. Deal of sister's son (m.s.)       15. Daughter's son (m.s.)       16. Daughter's son (m.s.)       17. Edition         18. Wife         19. Edition         19. Edition         19. Edition         19. Edition         19. Edition         19. Edition	II. Father's sister's child .		24. [.i. ii] White should	•
13. Mother's brother's wife       Kawu pö.       27. Wife's brother       Pö dang: pö dyat.         14. Mother's brother's child       Wai-i-wa.       28. Wife's sister       Tè.         15. Mother's sister       Tè.       29. Husband's brother       Kan dyat.         16. Mother's sister's husband.       31. Wife's sister's husband       32. Husband's brother's wife       Aw.         17. Mother's sister's child       Kawn te.       33. Son's wife's parents       Pö.         18. Younger brother (m.s.)       Wa-i-mai.       16. Daughter's son       Sao.         19. Brother (w.s.)       Elder with with with with with with with with	12. Mother's brother	Pö dang: Pö	ac Hi Husband's	
14. Mother's brother's child   Wai-i-wa.   28. Wife's sister   Tè.   29. Husband's brother   Kun-an.   30. Husband's sister   Kun dyat.   Kun an.   31. Wife's sister's husband   Kun-an.   32. Husband's brother's wife   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   Aw.   A	13. Mother's brother's wife	'	mother.	
15. Mother's sister Tè.  16. Mother's sister's husband.  17. Mother's sister's child Kawn te.  18. Son Kawn-i-mai.  29. Husband's brother Kan dyat.  10. Mother's sister's husband and.  21. Husband's sister's husband and.  22. Husband's brother's wife and.  23. Son's wife's parents Pö.  24. Son's son (m.s.) Sao.  25. Son's son (m.s.) Sao.  26. Son's son (w.s.) Sao.  27. Husband's mother's child (m.s.) Wai-hapan.  28. Brother's child (m.s.) Kawn kun-an.  29. Husband's brother Kan dyat.  Kun-an.  Kan dyat.  Kun-an.  Aw.  Pö.  Son's son (m.s.) Sao.  Sao.  Sao.  (m.s.)  Daughter's son (m.s.)  Daughter's son (m.s.)  Ek.  Daughter's husband (m.s.)  Daughter's husband (m.s.)  Daughter's husband (m.s.)  Daughter's husband (m.s.)  Daughter's husband (m.s.)  Son's wife (m.s.)  Ek.  Son's wife (w.s.)  Son's wife (w.s.)  Son's wife (m.s.)  Son's wife (m.s.)  Ek.  Son's wife (m.s.)  Son's wife (m.s.)  Son's wife (m.s.)  Son's wife (m.s.)  Ek.  Son's wife (m.s.)  Son's wife (m.s.)  Son's wife (m.s.)  Son's wife (m.s.)  Ek.  Son's wife (m.s.)  Son's wife (m.s.)  Son's wife (m.s.)  Son's wife (m.s.)  Son's wife (m.s.)  Son's wife (m.s.)  Son's wife (m.s.)  Son's wife (m.s.)  Son's wife (m.s.)  Son's wife (m.s.)  Son's wife (m.s.)  Son's wife (m.s.)  Son's wife (m.s.)  Son's wife (m.s.)  Son's wife (m.s.)  Son's wife (m.s.)  Son's wife (m.s.)  Son's wife (m.s.)  Son's wife (m.s.)  Son's wife (m.s.)  Son's wife (m.s.)	14. Mother's brother's child	Wai-i-wa.	•	dyat.
16. Mother's sister's husband.  17. Mother's sister's child  18. Kawn i-mai.  20. Daughter  31. Wife's sister's husband Kun-an.  32. Husband's brother's wife Aw.  33. Son's wife's parents  34. Younger brother (m.s)  45. Wa-i-mai.  46. Brother's child (m.s.)  47. Husband's mother's child (m.s.)  48. Brother's child (m.s.)  49. Wife's brother's child (w.s.)  50. Kawn kun-an.  51. Wife's sister's husband Kun-an.  15. Expression (m.s.)  16. Son's son (m.s.)  17. Expression (m.s.)  18. Wife  19. Expression (m.s.)  19. Expression (m.s.)  19. Expression (m.s.)  19. Expression (m.s.)  19. Expression (m.s.)  19. Expression (m.s.)  19. Expression (m.s.)  19. Expression (m.s.)  19. Expression (m.s.)  19. Expression (m.s.)  19. Expression (m.s.)  19. Expression (m.s.)  19. Expression (m.s.)  19. Expression (m.s.)  19. Expression (m.s.)  19. Expression (m.s.)  19. Expression (m.s.)  19. Expression (m.s.)  19. Expression (m.s.)  19. Expression (m.s.)  20. Expression (m.s.)  21. Expression (m.s.)  22. Son's wife (m.s.)  23. Sister's husband (m.s.)  24. Sister's husband (m.s.)  25. Sister's husband (m.s.)  26. Son's wife (m.s.)  27. Son's wife (m.s.)  28. Sister's husband (m.s.)  29. Sister's husband (m.s.)  20. Expression (m.s.)  20. Expression (m.s.)  21. Expression (m.s.)  22. Sister's husband (m.s.)  23. Sister's husband (m.s.)  24. Sister's husband (m.s.)  25. Expression (m.s.)  26. Son's wife (m.s.)  27. Son's wife (m.s.)  28. Sister's husband (m.s.)  29. Sister's husband (m.s.)  20. Expression (m.s.)  21. Expression (m.s.)  22. Sister's husband (m.s.)  23. Sister's husband (m.s.)  24. Sister's husband (m.s.)  25. Expression (m.s.)  26. Son's wife (m.s.)  27. Sister's husband (m.s.)  28. Sister's husband (m.s.)  29. Sister's husband (m.s.)  29. Expression (m.s.)  20. Expression (m.s.)  20. Expression (m.s.)  21. Expression (m.s.)  22. Sister's husband (m.s.)  23. Sister's husband (m.s.)  24. Sister's husband (m.s.)	15. Mother's sister	Tè.	29. Husband's brother	Kun-an.
17. Mother's sister's child Kawn te.  18. Son  2 Daughter  3 Younger brother (m.s)  4 Younger sister (w.s.)  5 Brother(w.s.) { Elder     Younger  6 Brother's child (m.s.)  7 Husband's mother's child  8 Brother's child (w.s.)  9 Wife's brother's child (m.s.)  10 Sister's child (m.s.)  11 Kawn kun-an.  12 Son's son (m.s.) Sao.  Son's son (w.s.) Sao.  Daughter's son Sao.  (m.s.).  Daughter's son (w.s.).  12 Daughter's son Sao.  (m.s.).  Daughter's husband (m.s.)  Daughter's husband (m.s.)  Daughter's husband (m.s.)  Daughter's husband (m.s.)  Son's wife (w.s.)  Son's wife (w.s.)  Son's wife (w.s.)  Son's wife (w.s.)  Son's wife (w.s.)  Son's wife (w.s.)  Son's wife (w.s.)  Son's wife (w.s.)  Son's wife (w.s.)  Son's wife (w.s.)  Son's wife (w.s.)  Son's wife (w.s.)  Son's wife (w.s.)  Son's wife (w.s.)  Ek.  Sister's husband (m.s.)  Ek.  Sister's husband (w.s.)  Ek.  Sister's husband (w.s.)  Ek.		Kun an.	31. Wife's sister's husband	Kun-an.
2. Daughter Kawn-i-hpan. 3. Younger brother (m.s) Wa-i mai. 4. Younger sister (w.s.) Wai-i-hpan. 5. Brother(w.s.) {Elder Wai Younger Wa} i-mai. 6. Brother's child (m.s.) Kawn kun-an. 7. Husband's mother's Pö. 8. Brother's child (w.s.) Kawn kun-an. 9. Wife's brother's child Kwan pö. 10. Sister's child (m.s.) Kwan pö. 11. Husband's sister's child Kwan pö. 12. Son's wife (w.s.) Aw. 13. Son's wife (w.s.) Ek. 14. Sister's husband (m.s.) Ek. 15. Son's son (w.s.) Sao. 16. Daughter's son (m.s.) L-upan. 17. Ek. 18. Wife L-upan. 19. Son's wife (w.s.) Ek. 19. Son's wife (m.s.) Ek. 20. Son's wife (w.s.) Aw. 21. Sister's husband (m.s.) Ek. 22. Sister's husband (m.s.) Ek. 23. Sister's husband (w.s.) Ek.		Kawn te.		
2. Daughter Kawn-i-hpan. 3. Younger brother (m.s) Wa-i mai. 4. Younger sister (w.s.) Wai-i-hpan. 5. Brother(w.s.) {Elder Wai Younger Wa} i-mai. 6. Brother's child (m.s.) Kawn kun-an. 7. Husband's mother's Pö. 8. Brother's child (w.s.) Kawn kun-an. 9. Wife's brother's child Kwan pö. 10. Sister's child (m.s.) Kwan pö. 11. Husband's sister's child Kwan pö. 12. Son's wife (w.s.) Aw. 13. Son's wife (w.s.) Ek. 14. Sister's husband (m.s.) Ek. 15. Son's son (w.s.) Sao. 16. Daughter's son (m.s.) L-upan. 17. Ek. 18. Wife L-upan. 19. Son's wife (w.s.) Ek. 19. Son's wife (m.s.) Ek. 20. Son's wife (w.s.) Aw. 21. Sister's husband (m.s.) Ek. 22. Sister's husband (m.s.) Ek. 23. Sister's husband (w.s.) Ek.				
2. Daughter Kawn-i-hpan. 3. Younger brother (m.s) Wa-i mai. 4. Younger sister (w.s.) Wai-i-hpan. 5. Brother(w.s.) {Elder Wai Younger Wa} i-mai. 6. Brother's child (m.s.) Kawn kun-an. 7. Husband's mother's Pö. 8. Brother's child (w.s.) Kawn kun-an. 9. Wife's brother's child Kwan pö. 10. Sister's child (m.s.) Kwan pö. 11. Husband's sister's child Kwan pö. 12. Son's wife (w.s.) Aw. 13. Son's wife (w.s.) Ek. 14. Sister's husband (m.s.) Ek. 15. Son's son (w.s.) Sao. 16. Daughter's son (m.s.) L-upan. 17. Ek. 18. Wife L-upan. 19. Son's wife (w.s.) Ek. 19. Son's wife (m.s.) Ek. 20. Son's wife (w.s.) Aw. 21. Sister's husband (m.s.) Ek. 22. Sister's husband (m.s.) Ek. 23. Sister's husband (w.s.) Ek.	r Son	Kawn-i-mai.	14. — (Son's son (m.s.)	Sao.
6. Brother's child (m.s.) Kawn kun-an. 7. Husband's mother's Pö.  8. Brother's child (w.s.) Kawn kun-an. 9. Wife's brother's child Kwan pö.  10. Sister's child (m.s.)  11. Husband's sister's child Kwan pö.  12. Sister's husband (m.s.)  13. Wife  14. Daughter's husband (m.s.)  15. Daughter's husband (m.s.)  16. Daughter's husband (m.s.)  17. Daughter's husband (m.s.)  18. Wife  19. Sand (m.s.)  19. Son's wife (m.s.)  20. Son's wife (m.s.)  21. Sister's husband (m.s.)  22. Sister's husband (m.s.)  23. Sister's husband (m.s.)  24. Sister's husband (m.s.)  25. Ek.  26. Ek.  27. Sister's husband (m.s.)  28. Ek.  29. Sister's husband (m.s.)  20. Ek.  21. Sister's husband (m.s.)  22. Sister's husband (m.s.)  23. Sister's husband (m.s.)  24. Sister's husband (m.s.)	2. Daughter	Kawn-i-hpan.	Son's son (w.s.)	Sao.
6. Brother's child (m.s.) Kawn kun-an. 7. Husband's mother's Pö.  8. Brother's child (w.s.) Kawn kun-an. 9. Wife's brother's child Kwan pö.  10. Sister's child (m.s.)  11. Husband's sister's child Kwan pö.  12. Sister's husband (m.s.)  13. Wife  14. Daughter's husband (m.s.)  15. Daughter's husband (m.s.)  16. Daughter's husband (m.s.)  17. Daughter's husband (m.s.)  18. Wife  19. Sand (m.s.)  19. Son's wife (m.s.)  20. Son's wife (m.s.)  21. Sister's husband (m.s.)  22. Sister's husband (m.s.)  23. Sister's husband (m.s.)  24. Sister's husband (m.s.)  25. Ek.  26. Ek.  27. Sister's husband (m.s.)  28. Ek.  29. Sister's husband (m.s.)  20. Ek.  21. Sister's husband (m.s.)  22. Sister's husband (m.s.)  23. Sister's husband (m.s.)  24. Sister's husband (m.s.)	4. Younger sister (w.s.)	Wa-i-hnan.	(m.s.).	_
7. Husband's mother's Pö.  child.  8. Brother's child (w.s.) Kawn kun-an.  9. Wife's brother's child Kwan pö.  10. Sister's child (m.s.) Kwan pö.  11. Husband's sister's child Kwan pö.  22. O Son's wife (w.s.) Aw.  23. Sister's husband (m.s.) Ek.  24. Sister's husband (w.s.) Ek.	5. Brother (W.S.) Younger	·	(17.3.).	
10. Sister's child (m.s.) Kwan po.  22. In (Soil's with (w.s.) i.w.  11. Husband's sister's child Kwan po.  22. In (Soil's with (w.s.) i.w.  23. Sister's husband (m.s.) Ek.  24. Sister's husband (w.s.) Ek.	7. Husband's mother's		19. By Daughter's hus-	
10. Sister's child (m.s.) Kwan po.  22. In (Soil's with (w.s.) i.w.  11. Husband's sister's child Kwan po.  22. In (Soil's with (w.s.) i.w.  23. Sister's husband (m.s.) Ek.  24. Sister's husband (w.s.) Ek.			20. E Daughter's hus-	Ëk.
10. Sister's child (m.s.) Kwan po.  22. In (Soil's with (w.s.) i.w.  11. Husband's sister's child Kwan po.  22. In (Soil's with (w.s.) i.w.  23. Sister's husband (m.s.) Ek.  24. Sister's husband (w.s.) Ek.			21. End Son's wife (m.s.)	Aw.
24. Sister's husband (w.s.) Ek.			22. H ( DOIL 2 WILC (W.S.)	<b>44</b> .
	•	-	24. Sister's husband (w.s.)	Ëk.
12. Sister's child (w.s.) Kwan kān 25. Brother's wife (m.s.) Aw.  13. Wife's sister's child Kawn-an.  26. Brother's wife (w.s.) Aw.	12. Sister's child (w.s.) 13. Wife's sister's child			

(w.s.) = Women speaking. (m.s.) = Men speaking.

## APPENDIX B-III—continued.

TERMS OF RELATIONSHIP IN THE DIALECTS, OF HSIPAW STATE, NORTHERN SHAN STATES.

## Palaung: Pangnim.

1. Father 2. Mother	Kun. Mā.	18. 및 등 (Father's father	Hta.
3. Elder brother (m.s.) 4. Elder sister (w.s.)	Wai. Wai-i-hpan.	Father's father Father's mother	Yā.
5. { Elder } Sister (m.s.)	Wai Mai Wai Wai I-hpan.	20. The Mother's father	Hka.
6. Father's brother 7. Father's brother's wife	Kun dyat. Au-i-hpan.	21. 55 Mother's mother 22. Husband	Yā. I-mè,
8. Father's brother's child 9. Father's sister (elder)	Wai. Au-i-hpan	22 (Wife's father	Pö.
(younger)	Kön-i-hpan.	24. $\frac{1}{2}$ Wife's mother	Kön.
10. Father's sister's husband (elder)	Au-i-me.	24. Parties with the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of t	Pö.
(younger) 11. Father's sister's child	Pö. Wai-i-hpan :	26. Husband's mother.	Kön:
12. Mother's brother	wa-i-me. Pö dang: pö	27. Wife's brother	D <b>è.</b> Wai-i-hpan.
12. Mother's brother	dyat.	26. Wife's sister 29. Husband's brother	Wa-i-me.
13. Mother's brother's wife 14. Mother's brother's child	Kön pö. Wai-i-wa.	30. Husband's sister	Pi-kwi: nawng kwi.
15. Mother's sister	De.	31. Wife's sister's husband	Pi-kwi: nawng
<ul><li>16. Mother's sister's husband</li><li>17. Mother's sister's child</li></ul>	An. Kawn De.	32. Husband's brother's wife 33. Son's wife's parents	De. De.
r. Son	Kawn-i-me.	15. 7 (Son's son (m.s.)	Sti.
2. Daughter	Kawn-i-hpan.	Son's son (m.s.) Son's son (w.s.) Daughter's son	Sü.
3. Younger brother (m.s.) 4. Younger sister (w.s.)	Wai-i-mè. Wai-i-hpan.	Daughter's son (m.s.)	Sū.
5. Brother (w.s.) Elder Younger	Wai Wai } i-me.	17. baughter's son (m.s.) 18. Daughter's son (w.s.)	Sã.
6. Brother's child (m.s.)	Kwan dyat.	10. Wife	l-hpan.
7. Husband's mother's child.	Wai: wa.	20.  Daughter's husband (m.s.).  Daughter's husband (w.s.).  Daughter's husband (w.s.).  Son's wife (m.s.)  Son's wife (w.s.).	Luk-hkwè.
8. Brother's child (w.s.)	Kön dyat.	21. E d Daughter's hus-	Luk-hkwè.
9. Wife's brother's child	Kön dyat.	호.튀	Luk paü.
11. Sister's child (m.s.)	Kön dyat.	ani S	T 1
12. Husband's sister's child	Kön dyat.	24. Sister's husband (m s.)	Luk paü. Pi-hkwe
13. Sister's child (w.s.)	Kön dyat.	25. Sister's husband (w.s.)	Naung hkwe.
14. Wise's sister's child	Kön dyat.	26. Brother's wife (m.s.) 27. Brother's wife (w.s.)	Dè. Naung pān.

(m.s)=Men Speaking.

(w.s.)=Women Speaking.

## APPENDIX B-III—continued.

TERMS OF RELATIONSHIP IN THE DIALECTS OF HSIPAW STATE, NORTHERN SHAN STATES.

## Palaung: Maonoi.

			·	
	Father Mother	Gun. Mè.	Father's father  19. Very beautiful of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the property of the pro	Htè.
	Elder brother (m. s.)	Wai.	19. Father's mother	Yi.
4.	Elder sister (w. s.) (Elder ) Sister	Wai-i-hpan. Wai	20. Pu Mother's father	Htè.
5·	Younger \ (m. s.). \ Father's brother	Wai } i-hpan. Eu.	, (	Yi.
		_	22. Husband	I-mai. Hpö.
•	Father's brother's wife	Pa-en.	24. Wife's mother	Gan.
	Father's brother's child	Wai.	\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\	
	Father's sister Father's sister's husband	Gan. Hpō.	25. Husband's father	Hpö.
		-	24.   Wife's mother  25.   Husband's father  26.   Husband's	Gan.
	Father's sister's child .	Kawn hpö.	mother.	
12,	Mother's brother	Hpödang: hpö dyat.	27.   (Wife's brother 28. Wife's sister	I-a.
12.	Mother's brother's wife	Hkaun hpö.	29 Husband's brother	Wai-i-hpan. Gun-en.
14.	Mother's brother's child	Wai-i-wa.	30. Husband's sister	Gan.
•			31. Wife's sister's husband	Hpö.
	Mother's sister	Tè.	32. Husband's brother's	Hpa-hka.
	Mother's sister's husband	Gun-en.	wife.	TT
17.	Mother's sister's child	Kawn tè.	33. Son's wife's parents	Hpö.
				•
			-	•
	•		<del></del> -	
,	Son	Hkawn-i-mai	12 Wife's sister's child	Hleaven dwat
	Son	Hkawn-i-mai. Hkawn-i-	13. Wife's sister's child	Hkawn dyat.
	Son Daughter	Hkawn-i-mai. Hkawn-i- hpan.	14. \ {Son's son (m. s.)	Hkawn dyat. Sa.
2. 3·	Daughter Younger brother (m. s.)	Hkawn-i- hpan. Wai-i-mai.	14. \ {Son's son (m. s.)	Sa.
2. 3·	Daughter  Younger brother (m. s.) Younger sister (w. s.)	Hkawn-i- hpan. Wai-i-mai. We-i-hpan.	14. Son's son (m. s.)	
2. 3·	Younger brother (m.s.) Younger sister (w.s.)  ( Brother ) Elder	Hkawn-i- hpan. Wai-i-mai. We-i-hpan. Wai	14. Son's son (m. s.) Son's son (w. s.)	Sa.
2. 3. 4. 5.	Younger brother (m.s.) Younger sister (w.s.)  Brother Elder  (w.s.) Younger	Hkawn-i- hpan. Wai-i-mai. We-i-hpan. Wai We }-i-mai.	14. Son's son (m. s.) Son's son (w. s.)	Sa.
2. 3· 4· 5· 6.	Younger brother (m.s.) Younger sister (w.s.)  Brother Elder (w.s.) Younger Brother's child (m.s.)	Hkawn-i- hpan. Wai-i-mai. We-i-hpan. Wai We }-i-mai. Hkawn-i-wai.	Son's son (m. s.)  15.   Daughter's son (m. s.)  16.   Daughter's son (m. s.)	Sa. Sa. Sa.
2. 3· 4· 5· 6.	Younger brother (m.s.) Younger sister (w.s.)  Brother Elder  (w.s.) Younger	Hkawn-i- hpan. Wai-i-mai. We-i-hpan. Wai We }-i-mai.	14. 15. 16. 17. 18. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19. 19.	Sa. Sa. Sa. Sa.
2. 3· 4· 5· 6. 7·	Younger brother (m.s.) Younger sister (w.s.)  Brother Elder  (w.s.) Younger  Brother's child (m.s.)  Husband's mother's child.	Hkawn-i- hpan. Wai-i-mai. We-i-hpan. Wai We  -i-mai. Hkawn-i-wai. Gau.	14. 15. 16. 17. 17. Son's son (w. s.)  Daughter's son (m. s.).  Daughter's son (w. s.).  (w. s.).	Sa. Sa. Sa. I-hpan.
2. 3· 4· 5· 6. 7·	Younger brother (m.s.) Younger sister (w.s.)  Brother Elder  (w.s.) Younger Brother's child (m.s.) Husband's mother's	Hkawn-i- hpan. Wai-i-mai. We-i-hpan. Wai We	14. 15. 16. 17. 17. Son's son (w. s.)  Daughter's son (m. s.).  Daughter's son (w. s.).  (w. s.).	Sa. Sa. Sa. Sa.
2. 3· 4· 5· 6. 7·	Younger brother (m.s.) Younger sister (w.s.)  Brother Elder  (w.s.) Younger  Brother's child (m.s.)  Husband's mother's child.  Brother's child (w.s.)	Hkawn-i- hpan. Wai-i-mai. We-i-hpan. Wai We }-i-mai. Hkawn-i-wai. Gau.  Those questioned were	14. 15. 16. 17. 17. Son's son (w. s.)  Daughter's son (m. s.).  Daughter's son (w. s.).  (w. s.).	Sa. Sa. Sa. I-hpan. E-a.
2. 3· 4· 5· 6. 7·	Younger brother (m.s.) Younger sister (w.s.)  Brother Elder  (w.s.) Younger  Brother's child (m.s.)  Husband's mother's child.	Hkawn-i- hpan. Wai-i-mai. We-i-hpan. Wai We  -i-mai. Hkawn-i-wai. Gau.  Those questioned were unable to	Son's son (m. s.)   Son's son (m. s.)     Son's son (w. s.)     Son's son (w. s.)     Daughter's son (m. s.).     Daughter's son (w. s.).     Daughter's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's hus	Sa. Sa. Sa. I-hpan.
2. 3· 4· 5· 6. 7·	Younger brother (m.s.) Younger sister (w.s.)  Brother Elder  (w.s.) Younger  Brother's child (m.s.)  Husband's mother's child.  Brother's child (w.s.)	Hkawn-i- hpan. Wai-i-mai. We-i-hpan. Wai We }-i-mai. Hkawn-i-wai. Gau.  Those questioned were	Son's son (m. s.)   Son's son (m. s.)     Son's son (w. s.)     Son's son (w. s.)     Daughter's son (m. s.).     Daughter's son (w. s.).     Daughter's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's hus	Sa. Sa. Sa. I-hpan. E-a.
2. 3· 4· 5· 6. 7·	Younger brother (m.s.) Younger sister (w.s.)  Brother Elder  (w.s.) Younger  Brother's child (m.s.)  Husband's mother's child.  Brother's child (w.s.)	Hkawn-i- hpan. Wai-i-mai. We-i-hpan. Wai We }-i-mai. Hkawn-i-wai. Gau.  Those questioned were unable to give different terms for these rela-	Son's son (m. s.)   Son's son (m. s.)     Son's son (w. s.)     Son's son (w. s.)     Daughter's son (m. s.).     Daughter's son (w. s.).     Daughter's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's huster's hus	Sa. Sa. Sa. I-hpan. E-a. E a.
2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7.	Younger brother (m.s.) Younger sister (w.s.) Brother Elder (w.s.) Younger Brother's child (m.s.) Husband's mother's child.  Brother's child (w.s.) Wife's brother's child	Hkawn-i- hpan. Wai-i-mai. We-i-hpan. Wai Ye-i-hpan. Wai Hkawn-i-wai. Gau.  Those questioned were unable to give different terms for these relationships,	Son's son (m. s.)  15.   Pility   Son's son (m. s.)  16.   Daughter's son (m. s.).  17.   Daughter's son (w. s.).  18.   Wife    19.   Son's wife (m. s.).  20.   Daughter's husband (m. s.).  21.   Son's wife (m. s.)  Son's wife (w. s.)  Son's wife (w. s.)	Sa. Sa. Sa. Sa. I-hpan. E-a. E a. Ao.
2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7.	Younger brother (m.s.) Younger sister (w.s.)  Brother Elder  (w.s.) Younger  Brother's child (m.s.)  Husband's mother's child.  Brother's child (w.s.)	Hkawn-i- hpan. Wai-i-mai. We-i-hpan. Wai Ye-i-hpan. Wai Hkawn-i-wai. Gau.  Those questioned were unable to give different terms for these relationships, prefixing	Son's son (m. s.)  15.   Pility   Son's son (m. s.)  16.   Daughter's son (m. s.).  17.   Daughter's son (w. s.).  18. Wife  19.   Son's wife (m. s.).  20.   Daughter's husband (m. s.).  21.   Son's wife (m. s.)  22.   Son's wife (w. s.)  Son's wife (w. s.)	Sa. Sa. Sa. I-hpan. E-a. E a.
2. 3· 4. 5· 6. 7· 8. 9.	Younger brother (m.s.) Younger sister (w.s.) Brother Elder (w.s.) Younger Brother's child (m.s.) Husband's mother's child.  Brother's child (w.s.) Wife's brother's child	Hkawn-i- hpan. Wai-i-mai. We-i-hpan. Wai We }-i-mai. Hkawn-i-wai. Gau.  Those questioned were unable to give different terms for these relationships, prefixing "hkawn"	Son's son (m. s.)  15. Pility Son's son (m. s.)  16. Daughter's son (m. s.).  17. Daughter's son (w. s.).  18. Wife  19. Daughter's husband (m. s.).  20. Pility Daughter's husband (w. s.).  21. Son's wife (m. s.)  22. Son's wife (w. s.)  23. Sister's husband (m. s.).	Sa. Sa. Sa. Sa. I-hpan. E-a. E a. Ao.
2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8.	Younger brother (m. s.) Younger sister (w. s.) Brother Elder (w. s.) Younger Brother's child (m. s.) Husband's mother's child.  Brother's child (w. s.) Wife's brother's child  Sister's child (m. s.) Husband's sister's child	Hkawn-i- hpan. Wai-i-mai. We-i-hpan. Wai Ye-i-hpan. Wai Hkawn-i-wai. Gau.  Those questioned were unable to give different terms for these relationships, prefixing "hkawn" to name for parent only.	Son's son (m. s.)  15. Pility Son's son (m. s.)  16. Pility Daughter's son (m. s.).  17. Daughter's son (w. s.).  18. Wife  19. Son's wife (m. s.).  20. Pility Daughter's husband (w. s.).  21. Son's wife (m. s.)  22. Son's wife (m. s.)  23. Sister's husband (m. s.).  24. Sister's husband (m. s.).  25. Brother's wife (m. s.)	Sa. Sa. Sa. Sa. I-hpan. E-a. E a. Ao. Ao. E-a. E-a. Ao.
2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8.	Younger brother (m. s.) Younger sister (w. s.) Brother Elder (w. s.) Younger Brother's child (m. s.) Husband's mother's child.  Brother's child (w. s.) Wife's brother's child	Hkawn-i- hpan. Wai-i-mai. We-i-hpan. Wai Ye-i-hpan. Wai Hkawn-i-wai. Gau.  Those questioned were unable to give different terms for these relationships, prefixing "hkawn" to name for	Son's son (m. s.)  15. Pility Son's son (m. s.)  16. Pility Daughter's son (m. s.).  17. Daughter's son (w. s.).  18. Wife  19. Son's wife (m. s.).  20. Pility Daughter's husband (w. s.).  21. Son's wife (m. s.)  22. Son's wife (m. s.)  23. Sister's husband (m. s.).  24. Sister's husband (m. s.).  25. Brother's wife (m. s.)	Sa. Sa. Sa. Sa. I-hpan. E-a. E a. Ao. Ao. E-a. E-a.

### -APPENDIX B-III—continued.

## TERMS OF RELATIONSHIP IN THE DIALECTS OF HSIPAW STATE, NORTHERN SHAN STATES.

## Palaung: Raokying.

	Father	Gun.	18.	Father's father	Hta.
3•	Mother Elder brother (m. s.) Elder sister (w. s.)	I-sat-o. I-sat-i-hpan.	19. Lather the	Father's mother	Ya,
5·	{Elder } Sister { Younger} (m. s.). {	I-sat }-i-hpan.	20. punu	Mother's father  Mother's mother	Hka-o.
б.	Father's brother	Wi-au-o.	21. 00	Mother's mother	Yaü.
		Ma-au-o.	22. Husba	ind	I-mai-o.
S.	Father's brother's child	Kawn wi-au-o	23.	(Wife's father	Hpō-o.
	Father's sister	Gau-o.	24.	Wife's mother	Gan-o.
IQ.	Father's sister's husband	Hpō-o.	Ţ	Husband's father	
		<i>a</i> ,	$^{25} \cdot = 5$	Husband's father	Нрб-о.
	Father's sister's child	Gawn kan-o.	25.	Huspand's mother. Wife's brother	(1) o-usu
	Mother's brother	Kawn i-sat-o.	E H	mother.	<i>C</i>
13.	Mother's brother's wife	Kawn hpô.	27.	f while a protect	132n-0.
14.	Mother's brother's child	Wai-i-wa.		s sister	
				ind's brother	
15.	Mother's sister	Te.		od's sister	
ıō.	Mother's sister Mother's sister's husband	Gan-o.		s sister's husband	
			32. Hrzba	ud's brither's wife	Gailto.
·7-	Mother's sister's child	Kawa te.	33. Soz's	miie's parents	Hşő.

### APPENDIX B-III-continued.

TERMS OF RELATIONSHIP IN THE DIALECTS OF HSIPAW STATE, NORTHERN SHAN STATES.

## Kachin: Lahkawng.

2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12. 13. 14. 15. 16.	Father  Mother  Elder brother (m.s.)  Elder sister (w.s.)  Elder Sister  Younger (m. s.)  Father's brother  Father's brother's wife  Father's brother's child  Father's sister  Father's sister's husband  Father's sister's child  Mother's brother's wife  Mother's brother  Mother's brother's wife  Mother's sister's child  Mother's sister's child  Mother's sister's child  Mother's sister's child  Mother's sister's husband.	Awa. Aun. Hpu-ba. A-wa. Ka-na. Ka-naw. Wa-di. A-ni. Hpi. Naiwè. Tsa. Ani. A-tung. Ni-ba. Ngai-sha. Na-tung. Kao.	Father's father.  19.	Ji hkai. A-woi. Ji dwi. A-woi. Mdu-wa. Atsu. Ni. Aji. Moi. Rat. Ngai-nam. Apo. Ngainao. Ngaishu. Kao. Ngainao.
2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8 9	Son  Daughter  Younger brother (m.s.)  Younger sister (w.s.)  Brother (w.s.) { Elder  Younger  Brother's child (m.s.)  Husband's mother's  child.  Brother's child (w.s.)  Wife's brother's child  Sister's child (m.s.)  Husband's sister's child  Sister's child (w.s.)  Wife's sister's child (w.s.)	La kasha. Num kasha. Nan. Han. Hpuba. Nan. Sha. Tsa.  Sha. Sha Arat. Nai-kri. Nai-kri. Ngai-nam.	1.4. ) pi (Son's son (m.s.) 15.   Son's son (w.s.) 10. } Daughter's son	Shu. Shu. Shu. Shu. Shu. Shu. Mdu jan. Naikri. Naikri. Ngainaw. Ngainaw. Ago. Ago. Arat. Arat.

## APPENDIX B-III—continued.

## TERMS OF RELATIONSHIP IN THE DIALECTS OF HSIPAW STATE, NORTHERN SHAN STATES.

### Palaung: Humai.

	•	J	
	Father	Kun. Ma.	18. ] .: (Father's Hta.
3.		Pi-ao.	19. 불형 Father's Ya.
•	Elder sister (w. s.) § Elder  § Sister	Pê-i-hpan.	zo.   mother. Mother's Hta.
5· 6.	Younger (m.s.) Father's brother	Wa. (Elder) Kun dang	father.  Mother's Ya.  mother.
7.	Father's brother's wife	(Younger) Kun dè. (Elder) Ma dang (Younger)	22. Husband I-mai-ao. 23. Wife's Hpè-o-ao. father.
	Father's brother's child Father's sister	Ma de. Pi.	24. Wife's Kan-ao. wife's Man-ao. mother.  25. Husband's Hpè-o-ao. father.
10.	Father's sister's husband	Younger) Ma de.	25. Husband's Hpè-o-ao.
11.	Father's sister's child	(Younger) Kun de. Pi.	Husband's Kan-ao.
	Mother's brother	(Elder) Kun	27. Wife's brother Hpi-ao.
	Mother's brother's wife Mother's brother's child.	(Younger) Kun dè. Ai-ao. Pi.	28. Wife's sister Wa-i-hpan. 29. Husband's brother Yŭk-ao. 30. Husband's sister (Elder) Hpi-ao Wa (Younger.
	Mother's sister Mother's sister's husband.	Pi-ao. Kan.	31. Wife's sister's husband Yuk-ao. 32. Husband's brother's wife Nawng Koiac
17.	Mother's sister's child	Pi.	33. Son's wife's parents Hpè-o-pè.
		Kawn-i-mai.	14. Son's son (m. s.) Hlan-ao.
3.	Daughter Younger brother (m.s.) Younger sister(w. s.)	Kawn-i-hpan, Wa-ao, Wa-i-hpan,	15. The son (w. s.) Hlan-ao. 16. The Daughter's son Hlan-ao.
5.	{ Brother } Elder (w. s.) Younger	Pi-ao. Wa-ao.	(m. s.) Daughter's son Hlan-ao.
	Brother's child (m. s.) Husband's mother's	Hlan-ao. Kawn.	(w. s.) 18. Wife I-mai-hpan.
	child.		19. \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \
	Brother's child (w. s.) Wife's brother's child	Pi. Hlan-ao.	Daughter's hus- Koi-ao.  20.
	Sister's child (m. s.)	Hlan-ao.	21. Son's wife Hpi-ao. (m.s.).
II.	Husband's sister's child.	Wa-ao.	22. ) Son's wife Hpi-ao. (w.s.).
	Sister's child (w. s.) Wife's sister's child	Hlan-ao. Hlan-ao.	23. Sister's husband (m. s.) Yŭk-ao. 24. Sister's husband (w. s.) Yŭk-ao. 25. Brother's wife (m. s.) Ai. 26. Brother's wife (w. s.) Ai.
			, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,

## APPENDIX B-III—continued.

TERMS OF RELATIONSHIP IN THE DIALECTS OF HSIPAW STATE, NORTHERN SHAN STATES.

## Yang Lam.

	-		
Ι.	Father	Hpa.	18. Ta-awk.
2	Mother	Mā.	father.
	Elder brother (m. s.)	Mè-ai.	19. Father's Ta-awk.  father. Father's Ya-awk.  mother.
ي.	Elder biother (in s.)		19.   de   Tathers Tarawk.
4.	Elder sister (w. s.)	Mè-nang.	mother.
٠,	∫ Elder \Sister		20. Mother's Ta-nai.
5.	Younger \(\).(m. s.)	Tè-Kanya.	20. Mother's Ta-naī.  21. Mother's Ya-naī.
6.	Father's brother	Ting.	21. J G Mother's Ya-naī.
	Father's brother's		mother.
7.	wife.		77 - 1
0		M-:	
٥.	Father's, brother's.	Mai.	23. Wife's Paw-è.
	child		father.
9.	Father's sister.	Poi.	23. Wife's Paw-è. father. Wife's Kun-e. worker. Husband's Paw-e. father. Husband's Kun-e. Husband's Kun-e.
	Father's sister's hus-	Poi-long.	} ∵ T d mother.
	band.	q·	25. Husband's Paw-e.
	Father's sister's child	Mai.	table father.
			as I the land.
	Mother's brother	Paw-long.	26. J = [Husband's Kun-e.
13.	Mother's brother's	Kün-long.	mother.
	wife.		27. Wife's brother Mè-ai.
14.	Mother's brother's	Mai.	28. Wife's sister Mè-nang.
	child.		29. Husband's brother Mè-ai.
		Ma-long.	30. Husband's sister Me-dawng.
10.	Mother's sister's hus-	Paw-long.	31. Wife's sister's husband Kaw-e.
•	band.		32. Husband's brother's wife Me-dawng.
17.	Mother's sister's child	Mai.	33. Son's wife's parents Ta-dawng.
•			•
	_	77	DI:
ı.	Son	Kwan karawè.	14. ) (Son's son Pli.
		Kwan karawè. Kwan ka-ny.	(m c)
2.	Daughter	Kwan ka-ny.	(m c)
2.	Daughter Younger brother		15. Son's son Pli.
2. 3.	Daughter Younger brother (m. s.).	Kwan ka-ny. Tè kara-mè.a	15. Son's son Pli.
2. 3.	Daughter Younger brother	Kwan ka-ny.	15. Son's son Pli.
2. 3. 4.	Daughter Younger brother (m. s.). Younger sister (w. s.)	Kwan ka-ny. Tè kara-mè.a Te ka-nya.	15.   (m. s.)   Son's son   Pli. (w. s.)   Daughter's   Pli. (m. s.).   Pli. (m. s.).
2. 3. 4.	Daughter Younger brother (m. s.). Younger sister (w. s.) Brother (Elder	Kwan ka-ny. Tè kara-mè.a Te ka-nya. Mè-ai-è.	15.   (m. s.)   Son's son   Pli.   (w. s.)   Daughter's   Pli.   (m. s.).   Daughter's son   Pli.   Pli.   (m. s.).   Daughter's son   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.   Pli.
2. 3. 4.	Daughter Younger brother (m. s.). Younger sister (w. s.) Brother (Elder	Kwan ka-ny. Tè kara-mè.a Te ka-nya.	15.   The state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of
2. 3. 4.	Daughter Younger brother (m. s.). Younger sister (w. s.)	Kwan ka-ny. Tè kara-mè.a Te ka-nya. Mè-ai-è.	15.   File   Son's son   Pli.   16.   Daughter's   Pli.   17.   Daughter's son   Pli.   18. Wife     Ka-ny-a.
2. 3. 4., 5.	Daughter Younger brother (m. s.). Younger sister (w. s.)  Brother { Elder (w. s.) { Younger	Kwan ka-ny. Tè kara-mè.a Te ka-nya. Mè-ai-è. Te-kara-mè.	15.   Fill   Son's son   Pli.   16.   Daughter's   Pli.   17.   Daughter's son   Pli.   18.   Wife       Ka-ny-a.   19.   Ka-ny-a.   Ka-ny-a.   Ka-ny-a.   19.   Market   Ka-ny-a.   Ka-ny-a.   19.   Market   Ka-ny-a.   Ka-ny-a.   19.   Market   Ka-ny-a.   Ka-ny-a.   19.   Market   Ka-ny-a.   Ka-ny-a.   19.   Market   Ka-ny-a.   Ka-ny-a.   19.   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market   Market
2. 3. 4., 5.	Daughter Younger brother (m. s.). Younger sister (w. s.) Brother (Elder	Kwan ka-ny. Tè kara-mè.a Te ka-nya. Mè-ai-è.	15.   Fill   (m. s.)   Son's son   Pli.   (w. s.)    16.   Daughter's   Pli.   (m. s.).    17.   Daughter's son   Pli.   (w. s.).    18.   Wife     Ka-ny-a.    19   Daughter's   Ka-mawn.   Charles   Charles   Ka-mawn.    19   Daughter's   Charles   Ka-mawn.   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Charles   Ch
2. 3. 4., 5.	Daughter Younger brother (m. s.). Younger sister (w. s.)  Brother { Elder (w. s.) } Younger  Brother's child (m. s.)	Kwan ka-ny. Tè kara-mè.a Te ka-nya. Mè-ai-è. Te-kara-mè. Plī.	(m. s.) Son's son (w. s.)  16. Daughter's (m. s.). Daughter's son (w. s.).  Daughter's son (w. s.).  18. Wife  Daughter's  Ka-ny-a.  Character's husband.  (m. s.)  Ra-ny-a.  (m. s.)
2. 3. 4., 5.	Daughter Younger brother (m. s.). Younger sister (w. s.)  Brother { Elder (w. s.) } Younger  Brother's child (m. s.)  Husband's mother's	Kwan ka-ny. Tè kara-mè.a Te ka-nya. Mè-ai-è. Te-kara-mè.	(m. s.) Son's son (w. s.)  16. Daughter's (m. s.). Daughter's son (w. s.).  Daughter's son (w. s.).  18. Wife  Daughter's  Ka-ny-a.  Chaughter's husband.  (m. s.)
2. 3. 4., 5.	Daughter Younger brother (m. s.). Younger sister (w. s.)  Brother { Elder (w. s.) } Younger  Brother's child (m. s.)	Kwan ka-ny. Tè kara-mè.a Te ka-nya. Mè-ai-è. Te-kara-mè. Plī.	(m. s.) Son's son (w. s.)  16. Daughter's (m. s.). Daughter's son (w. s.).  Daughter's son (w. s.).  18. Wife  Daughter's  Ka-ny-a.  Chaughter's husband.  (m. s.)
2. 3. 4., 5. 6. 7.	Daughter Younger brother (m. s.). Younger sister (w. s.)  Brother { Elder Younger	Kwan ka-ny. Tè kara-mè.a Te ka-nya. Mè-ai-è. Te-kara-mè. Plī. Twè.	(m. s.) Son's son (w. s.)  16. Daughter's (m. s.). Daughter's son (w. s.).  Daughter's son (w. s.).  18. Wife  Daughter's  Ka-ny-a.  Chaughter's husband.  (m. s.)
2. 3. 4., 5. 6. 7.	Daughter Younger brother (m. s.). Younger sister (w. s.)  Brother { Elder (w. s.) } Younger  Brother's child (m. s.)  Husband's mother's	Kwan ka-ny. Tè kara-mè.a Te ka-nya. Mè-ai-è. Te-kara-mè. Plī.	(m. s.) Son's son (w. s.)  16. Daughter's (m. s.). Daughter's son (w. s.).  Daughter's son (w. s.).  18. Wife  Daughter's  Ka-ny-a.  Chaughter's husband.  (m. s.)
2. 3. 4., 5. 6. 7.	Daughter Younger brother (m. s.). Younger sister (w. s.)  Brother { Elder Younger	Kwan ka-ny. Tè kara-mè.a Te ka-nya. Mè-ai-è. Te-kara-mè. Plī. Twè.	(m. s.) Son's son (w. s.)  16. Daughter's (m. s.). Daughter's son (w. s.).  Daughter's son (w. s.).  18. Wife  Daughter's  Ka-ny-a.  Chaughter's husband.  (m. s.)
2. 3· 4., 5· 6. 7· 8.	Daughter Younger brother (m. s.). Younger sister (w. s.)  Brother { Elder Younger	Kwan ka-ny. Tè kara-mè.a  Te ka-nya.  Mè-ai-è. Te-kara-mè.  Plī.  Twè.	(m. s.)  16. Pull (w. s.)  17. Daughter's Pli. (m. s.).  Daughter's Pli. (m. s.).  Daughter's Pli. (w. s.).  Daughter's Pli. (w. s.).  Daughter's Ka-ny-a.  Daughter's Ka-mawn.  husband.  (m. s.).  Daughter's Ka-mawn.  husband.  (w. s.).  Son's wife Ka-mün.
2. 3· 4., 5· 6. 7· 8.	Daughter Younger brother (m. s.). Younger sister (w. s.)  Brother { Elder Younger	Kwan ka-ny. Te kara-me.a  Te ka-nya.  Mè-ai-è. Te-kara-me.  Plī.  Twè.	(m. s.) Son's son (w. s.)  16. Daughter's Pli. (m. s.). Daughter's Pli. (w. s.).  18. Wife  Daughter's Ka-ny-a.  Daughter's Ka-mawn. husband. (m. s.). Daughter's Ka-mawn. husband. (w. s.). Son's wife (m. s.). Son's wife (m. s.). Son's wife (m. s.). Son's wife (m. s.). Son's wife (m. s.). Son's wife (m. s.). Son's wife (m. s.). Son's wife (m. s.). Son's wife (m. s.). Son's wife (m. s.). Son's wife (m. s.). Son's wife (m. s.). Son's wife (m. s.).
2. 3. 4., 5. 6. 7. 8. 9.	Daughter Younger brother (m. s.). Younger sister (w. s.)  Brother { Elder Younger	Kwan ka-ny. Te kara-me.a  Te ka-nya.  Mè-ai-è. Te-kara-me.  Plī.  Twè.  Pli.	(m. s.)  16.   Daughter's   Pli.    17.   Daughter's   Pli.    18.   Wife   Market    19   Market    20   Market    20   Market    21   Market    22   Oak    23   Oak    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa   Carrett    Coa
2. 3. 4., 5. 6. 7. 8. 9.	Daughter Younger brother (m. s.). Younger sister (w. s.)  Brother { Elder Younger	Kwan ka-ny. Tè kara-mè.a  Te ka-nya.  Mè-ai-è. Te-kara-mè.  Plī.  Twè.	(m. s.)  16. { pure son (w. s.)   Daughter's Pli. (m. s.).   Daughter's son (w. s.).   Daughter's son (w. s.).   Daughter's Ka-mawn.   Machine son (w. s.).   Daughter's Ka-mawn.   Machine son (m. s.).   Daughter's Ka-mawn.   Machine son (w. s.).   Daughter's Ka-mawn.   Machine son (w. s.).   Son's wife (m. s.).   Son's wife (m. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w. s.).   Son's wife (w.
2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10.	Daughter Younger brother (m. s.). Younger sister (w. s.)  Brother { Elder Younger	Kwan ka-ny. Te kara-me.a  Te ka-nya.  Me-ai-e. Te-kara-me.  Pli.  Twe.  Pli.  Pli.  Pli.	15. Pilly Son's son Pli.  16. Pure Son's son Pli.  17. Daughter's Pli.  18. Wife Ka-ny-a.  19 Daughter's Ka-mawn.  19 Daughter's Ka-mawn.  19 Daughter's Ka-mawn.  19 Daughter's Ka-mawn.  19 Daughter's Ka-mawn.  10 Daughter's Ka-mawn.  10 Daughter's Ka-mawn.  10 Daughter's Ka-mawn.  10 Daughter's Ka-mawn.  10 Daughter's Ka-mawn.  10 Daughter's Ka-mawn.  11 Son's wife Ka-mūn.  12 Daughter's Ka-mūn.  12 Daughter's Ka-mūn.  13 Sister's husband Kaw-è.
2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10.	Daughter Younger brother (m. s.). Younger sister (w. s.)  Brother { Elder Younger	Kwan ka-ny. Te kara-me.a  Te ka-nya.  Mè-ai-è. Te-kara-me.  Plī.  Twè.  Pli.	15.   Fill   Son's son   Pli.   (w. s.)   Daughter's   Pli.   (m. s.).   Daughter's son   Pli.   (w. s.).   Daughter's son   Pli.   (w. s.).   (w. s.).   Ka-ny-a.   (w. s.).   Ka-mawn.   husband.   (m. s.).   Daughter's   Ka-mawn.   husband.   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (m. s.).   Son's wife   (m. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w
2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10.	Daughter Younger brother (m. s.). Younger sister (w. s.)  Brother { Elder Younger	Kwan ka-ny. Te kara-me.a  Te ka-nya.  Me-ai-e. Te-kara-me.  Pli.  Twe.  Pli.  Pli.  Pli.	15.   Fill   Son's son   Pli.   (w. s.)   Daughter's   Pli.   (m. s.).   Daughter's son   Pli.   (w. s.).   Daughter's son   Pli.   (w. s.).   (w. s.).   Ka-ny-a.   (w. s.).   Ka-mawn.   husband.   (m. s.).   Daughter's   Ka-mawn.   husband.   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (m. s.).   Son's wife   (m. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w. s.).   Son's wife   (w
2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10.	Daughter Younger brother (m. s.). Younger sister (w. s.)  Brother { Elder Younger	Kwan ka-ny. Te kara-me.a  Te ka-nya.  Me-ai-e. Te-kara-me.  Pli.  Twe.  Pli.  Pli.  Pli.  Pli.  Pli.	(m. s.)  15.   Dility   Son's son   Pli.    16.   Daughter's   Pli.    17.   Daughter's son   Pli.    18.   Wife        19   Marginary   Marginary    20   Marginary   Marginary    21   Marginary   Marginary    22   Marginary   Marginary    23   Sister's husband   Kaw-è.    24   Sister's husband   Kaw-è.    25   Marginary   Marginary    26   Marginary    27   Marginary    28   Sister's husband   Kaw-è.    29   Marginary    20   Marginary    21   Marginary    22   Marginary    23   Sister's husband   Kaw-è.    24   Sister's husband   Kaw-è.    25   Marginary    26   Marginary    27   Marginary    28   Marginary    29   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    21   Marginary    22   Marginary    23   Marginary    24   Sister's husband    (m. s.).    25   Marginary    26   Marginary    27   Marginary    28   Marginary    29   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    21   Marginary    22   Marginary    23   Marginary    24   Marginary    25   Marginary    26   Marginary    27   Marginary    28   Marginary    29   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    21   Marginary    22   Marginary    23   Marginary    24   Marginary    25   Marginary    26   Marginary    27   Marginary    28   Marginary    29   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    21   Marginary    22   Marginary    23   Marginary    24   Marginary    25   Marginary    26   Marginary    27   Marginary    28   Marginary    29   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    21   Marginary    22   Marginary    23   Marginary    24   Marginary    25   Marginary    26   Marginary    27   Marginary    28   Marginary    29   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    21   Marginary    22   Marginary    23   Marginary    24   Marginary    25   Marginary    26   Marginary    27   Marginary    28   Marginary    29   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    21   Marginary    22   Marginary    23   Marginary    24   Marginar
2. 3. 4., 5.; 6. 7. 8. 9. 10.	Daughter Younger brother (m. s.). Younger sister (w. s.)  Brother { Elder Younger	Kwan ka-ny. Te kara-me.a  Te ka-nya.  Me-ai-e. Te-kara-me.  Pli.  Twe.  Pli.  Pli.  Pli.  Pli.  Pli.	(m. s.)  15.   Dility   Son's son   Pli.    16.   Daughter's   Pli.    17.   Daughter's son   Pli.    18.   Wife        19   Marginary   Marginary    20   Marginary   Marginary    21   Marginary   Marginary    22   Marginary   Marginary    23   Sister's husband   Kaw-è.    24   Sister's husband   Kaw-è.    25   Marginary   Marginary    26   Marginary    27   Marginary    28   Sister's husband   Kaw-è.    29   Marginary    20   Marginary    21   Marginary    22   Marginary    23   Sister's husband   Kaw-è.    24   Sister's husband   Kaw-è.    25   Marginary    26   Marginary    27   Marginary    28   Marginary    29   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    21   Marginary    22   Marginary    23   Marginary    24   Sister's husband    (m. s.).    25   Marginary    26   Marginary    27   Marginary    28   Marginary    29   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    21   Marginary    22   Marginary    23   Marginary    24   Marginary    25   Marginary    26   Marginary    27   Marginary    28   Marginary    29   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    21   Marginary    22   Marginary    23   Marginary    24   Marginary    25   Marginary    26   Marginary    27   Marginary    28   Marginary    29   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    21   Marginary    22   Marginary    23   Marginary    24   Marginary    25   Marginary    26   Marginary    27   Marginary    28   Marginary    29   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    21   Marginary    22   Marginary    23   Marginary    24   Marginary    25   Marginary    26   Marginary    27   Marginary    28   Marginary    29   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    21   Marginary    22   Marginary    23   Marginary    24   Marginary    25   Marginary    26   Marginary    27   Marginary    28   Marginary    29   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    21   Marginary    22   Marginary    23   Marginary    24   Marginar
2. 3. 4., 5.; 6. 7. 8. 9. 10.	Daughter Younger brother (m. s.). Younger sister (w. s.)  Brother { Elder Younger	Kwan ka-ny. Te kara-me.a  Te ka-nya.  Me-ai-e. Te-kara-me.  Pli.  Twe.  Pli.  Pli.  Pli.  Pli.  Pli.	(m. s.)  16.
2. 3. 4., 5.; 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 112.	Daughter Younger brother (m. s.). Younger sister (w. s.)  Brother { Elder Younger	Kwan ka-ny. Te kara-me.a  Te ka-nya.  Me-ai-e. Te-kara-me.  Pli.  Twe.  Pli.  Pli.  Pli.  Pli.  Pli.	(m. s.)  15.   Dility   Son's son   Pli.    16.   Daughter's   Pli.    17.   Daughter's son   Pli.    18.   Wife        19   Marginary   Marginary    20   Marginary   Marginary    21   Marginary   Marginary    22   Marginary   Marginary    23   Sister's husband   Kaw-è.    24   Sister's husband   Kaw-è.    25   Marginary   Marginary    26   Marginary    27   Marginary    28   Sister's husband   Kaw-è.    29   Marginary    20   Marginary    21   Marginary    22   Marginary    23   Sister's husband   Kaw-è.    24   Sister's husband   Kaw-è.    25   Marginary    26   Marginary    27   Marginary    28   Marginary    29   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    21   Marginary    22   Marginary    23   Marginary    24   Sister's husband    (m. s.).    25   Marginary    26   Marginary    27   Marginary    28   Marginary    29   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    21   Marginary    22   Marginary    23   Marginary    24   Marginary    25   Marginary    26   Marginary    27   Marginary    28   Marginary    29   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    21   Marginary    22   Marginary    23   Marginary    24   Marginary    25   Marginary    26   Marginary    27   Marginary    28   Marginary    29   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    21   Marginary    22   Marginary    23   Marginary    24   Marginary    25   Marginary    26   Marginary    27   Marginary    28   Marginary    29   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    21   Marginary    22   Marginary    23   Marginary    24   Marginary    25   Marginary    26   Marginary    27   Marginary    28   Marginary    29   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    21   Marginary    22   Marginary    23   Marginary    24   Marginary    25   Marginary    26   Marginary    27   Marginary    28   Marginary    29   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    20   Marginary    21   Marginary    22   Marginary    23   Marginary    24   Marginar

### APPENDIX B-III-continued.

TERMS OF RELATIONSHIP IN THE DIALECTS OF HSIPAW STATE, NORTHERN
- SHAN STATES.

## Taungthu.

	Taw	rgthu.	•
1. Father 2. Mother	Hpa. Me.	18. Husband	Ka wā.
3. Elder brother (m. s.)	We liko.	19.) (Wife's father	Hpā.
4. Elder sister (w. s.) Sister	We mu. We Mu.	20.   1   Wife's	Mè.
5. Younger \ (m. s.) 6. Father's brother	(Elder) Lüng	20.   Wife's mother.   Husband's father.   Husband's   Husband's   Husband's   Husband's   Husband's	Hpā.
7. Father's brother's wife 8. Father's brother's	(Younger) Upānang. Mao nang. Lī.	father. Husband's mother.	Mè.
child.	Me Tān,	23. Wife's brother	Wè.
9. Father's sister 10. Father's sister's husband.	Lung.	24. Wife's sister	Wè.
11. Father's sister's child 12. Mother's brother	Lî. (Elder) Li long	25. Husband's brother	Wè.
12. Mothet 3 blother 11.	(Younger) Hpa yang.	26. Husband's sister	Wè.
13. Mother's sister's husband.	Lī pā.	27. Wife's sister's husband.	Wè.
14.) (Father's	Hpā hprā.	28. Husband's brother's wife.	Wè.
15. Tather. Father's mother.  16. The point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point of the point	Mè taru. Mè hpra. Me taru.	29. Son's wife's parents	Pu long (male) Hpi long (female).
r Son	Po hko.	T= Wife	Karm mä.
1. Son	Po mu.	15. Wife	
3. Younger brother (m. s.).	Hpu hko.	Daughter's husband	Ma.
4. Younger sister (w. s.). 5. Brother {Elder (w. s.) Younger	Hpu mu. We Hpu }hko.	17.	Ma.
6. Brother's child (m. s.) 7. Husband's mother's	Lī. Wè.	(w. s.).	Pā nein.
child.  8. Wife's brother's child  9. Sister's child (m. s.)	Li. Li.	19. \( \sigma \frac{\text{(m. s.).}}{\text{Son's wife}} \)	Pā nein.
io. Husband's sister's child.	Li.	20. Sister's husband	Hpā taru.
Son's son (m. s.)	Li.	(m. s.). 21. Sister's husband	Hpā tāru.
Son's son (w.s.)	Li.	(m. s.).	362 60
Daughter's son (m. s.). Daughter's son		22. Brother's wife (m. s.)	
(m. s.). Daughter's son (w. s.).	Li.	23. Brother's wife (w. s.).	Mè taru.

## APPENDIX B-III—concluded.

TERMS OF RELATIONSHIP IN THE DIALECTS OF HSIPAW STATE, NORTHERN SHAN STATES.

#### Lihsaw.

	-	, Li	nsaw.	
ı.	Father	Ba-ba.	15. j [Father's father Ā-pā.	
2.	Mother	Ma-ma.	15. Father's father A-pā.  16. Father's mother A-za.	
3.	Elder brother (m.s.)	Ko-ko.	Mother's father A-pā.  18. Mother's mother A-hpo.	
•	Elder sister (w.s.) (Elder ) Sister	Hsi-sè. ) Hsi-se.	18. JG Mother's mother A-hpo. 19. Husband Za-gu.	
5. 6.	Younger (m.s.) Father's brother (Elder)	∫ Ng ·yi-ma. U hpā	20. \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \	
	(Younger) Father's brother's wife	Wo-wo. U-ma.	21. Wife's mother Ma-ma.  22. Husband's father Ba-ba.	
•	Father's brother's child	Gwa-saw.	22. Husband's father Ba-ba.	
9.	Father's sister	A-ug-yi.	23. \ Husband's Ma-ma. mother.	
10.	Father's sister's husband	Vi•vī.	24. Wife's brother Ma-la.	
	Father's sister's child	Gwa-saw.	25. Wife's sister Hsi-sè.	
	Mother's brother	Vī-vī.	26. Husband's brother (Elder) Ko-ko. (Younger) ng-yi-za.	,
13.	Mother's brother's child	Za-du,	27. Husband's sister Hsi-sè. 28. Wife's sister's husband Chi-fi.	
14.	Mother's sister's husband	Vī-vī.	29. Husband's brother's wife Hsi-se. 30. Son's wife's parents Hu-hpa: h ma.	u-
		,	· ·	
	Son	A-ta-fa.	10.	
	Daughter	A-myi-za.	11. 명 Son's son (w.s.) Li-pā.	
4.	Younger brother (m.s.) Younger sister (w.s.)	Ng-yi-za, Ng-yi-ma.	Daughter's son Li-pa.	
5.	Brother (w.s.) { Elder Younger	} Ko-ko. } Ng-yi-za.	13. 5 Daughter's son Li-pā. (w.s.).	
6.	Husband's mother's child	Ng-yi.	14. Wife Za-mea.  15. \ \geq \left\{ Daughter's \ My\'e.}	
7	Wife's brother's child	Li-pā.	Daughter's Myé.  husband (m.s.).  Daughter's Myé.  husband (w.s.).  husband (w.s.).  Son's wife (m.s.) Si-ma.	
	Sister's child (m.s.)	Sa-za.	17. Son's wife (m.s) Si-ma.	
Ų.	Distor's Child (m.s.)	tra-za,	18. $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left  \text{Son's wife (w.s.)} \right  $ Si-ma.  19. Sister's husband (m.s.) Chi-fi.  20. Sister's husband (w.s.) Chi-fi.	
9.	Wife's sister's child	Li-pā.	21. Brother's wife (m.s.) Mā-la.  22. Brother's wife (w.s.) Mā-la.	

(m.s.) = Man speaking.

(w.s.) = Woman speaking.

22. Brother's wife (w.s.) ...

Mā-la.

#### APPENDIX B-V.

# TERMS OF RELATIONSHIP IN THE DIALECTS OF THE SOUTH HSENWI STATE, NORTHERN SHAN STATES.

and the last of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of the state of th	graph representations the month of the second		٠.,					
Terp and Relationally.	Mics.	Lisar.		Pale.		Wa.	Yang Tam.	Muhso.
Fubri	Magain eagift.	, Ilaba .	}	Dch 🛶	***	Hting	Y2	Ahpan.
Matter on my me	Ti	Mana .	, ,	Gara li Mat	••	Kwan rameh	Kwan Oh	Tè.
(Eurenderfera) -	· A5 Vi	Kilo .		Gieg E Pun		Kwaa Rabun	Kwan Ka Nya	Ah Vi.
Lacrititer (MA)	15 W	Cally .	· }	Gai An	***	Parameh 1 Porameh	Twey	Ab VI.
Eller sister (mit)		Chickey .	!	Val E Usa	***	Pu raban ; Po rabau	Tey	Ab VI.
Yearier kater (m. 11) -	N22 NoM2 4 11	NIMA .	;	س وارتدی		Lterek	Mai	Nga Ni Mau,
Taberetrider in -	Upan Villa	UH;a.		Val L II.a		Paramch; l'oramch	Twey	Ahpun Vi Pa.
Porter's torcher's wife	Nachara Ma	U Ma .	٠,	EKALBan		Kwan Hann	Plea	Nga Ni Vi Ma.
Father's tricker's about to	Nga 24 Va Pa Valoria	Talla .	., ,	G 28		It Kwe (male) O Kwe	Twey	Nga Ni Vi Pa Ya.
Futher's said of	47 57 62.	Ni Nia	*	Gun Teak		ifemale). Kann Hann	Plea	Ah VI Ya.
Father's weight with the first	Mark Mark Mark	£7+ .	***	Males a least		Камп Ро	Plea	Ah VI Ma Pa Man Ya.
Father's expressed =	15.20 14 Pa Ya	Burine .		Gas		Kawa Hean	Pica	Ah Ni Vi Pa Ya.
Material rotter	DESCRIBER TO	IT Zat	، ي مد	Gea	i → ;	Kana Po	litea	Nga Vi Pan Ho E Tari
Hickory by there wife in a	New York, March	No 214 .		Gas	•••	Kawallisa	Pica	Nga Vi Pa Mi Ma,
iliabera britara (il al	AbSilitz Vs	N# 2. 1	. :	G=0		Kawa Hala	Pica	Ah NI VI Pa Ya.
. Mochesta alates	Seal National Section	Q 514	٠	Garden		Kawa Hean	Plea	Nga VI Pan Ho E Tari
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frierefrie	Algo	St Hja		Gara Tede 🛶	; ;	Kawa Hain	Pica	Ahpu.
· Father's author	- 53gu	Aspr	··• ,	E Ban Ye		Rimin u	Ka Nga	Ahpl.
Michigan Lather	٠.,	. توالىدې	, ,	Pali	٠,٠,٠	Rasa Hja Ramib	Teing	Ahpu.
Moder's outles as a	Maga	A5 11;	,	rd,	- !	Kawa Hya Ramch	Teleg	Ahpi, ,
Harinal	Milledly	No Zer .		Λ		Кама Нра Кабоа	Mawm	Ah Po Maw.
Wife's failer	4) 2	11=1-4		Aw		Rawn Hya Rabun	Mawm	Abpu.
Wife's mother on an	4.30	4 (	<b>3</b>	15-45	19	LtK*c	Gaw	Abpl.
Hartani's Live	Al≱w	Si 763		E-Ab		Likwen	Gaw	Ahpu.
Hashanda zuetter	Align	22.34		Aw	. ;	O Kwe	Мампа	Abple
. Wähle breder 🔔 👑	Sta V. P. 4	Hite .	. :	Aw		0 Kwe	Mawn	Nga Vi Pan
Wils's a sist	Nes Videa Vida	allery .		164a	- 1	Kawalian ratan 🕳	Ya -	Nga Vi Pao, Vi Ma.
Halands toulet	- New York San Blo Mara	Mile .	٠. ,	Hisa		Rassless mbas	Ya	Nga Vi Nga Po Maw.
Habababaraster	New Villian Palitage	14,14	٠.	Cca	!	Kila	Pa	Nga Vi Nga Po Maw.
Wile's matera limitions	New York Patter	CHEA		Ma	٠	Mi4	Ma	Nga Vi Nga Po Maw.
Harlanda trottera wife .	· Nas Villa Vi Ma	illata .	;	E Kat	•••	i.t cr Ek	Mal	Nga Vi Pa Vi Ma,
Sen's mile's parceds	Nest's	jara Hpa	<b></b> ;	R Rat of II Born	••	0	Mal	Nga Pu,
	Nga Ya Pa in in	Alpa Ya .	••• ;	E KM E MAL		0	Mal	Nga Ya Pa.
	Nga Ya Harining	. 45 541	1	E Mai Vai II Barn		Pu Ratun	Thay	Nga Ya Mi.
	Nga 54 min and an	No Zur .	•• }	Gara Trab		Hung (eller); Kola Al (Yourger).	Leivy	Nga Ni.
	Beabilla	Ni Ma		Ma Dan	***	Hile,	Ya	Nga Ni Ma.
	Ah Vi			Guen Gen Teah	***	Kana Po	Mal	Ah VI. Nga Ni.
	No Ni	tin Lue .	. 1	Guen Val II Buen	***	Hilan (eller); Pao Haban (Younger).	Pol	Nga Vi Ya Mi.
Bricher's chall (m.s.)	Nga Vi Ya Mi	Late .		Ones Ni Mai Un		Htts: Kawa Po	_	Nga Ni.
Hashand's methor's shall	Noshi	Nu Cur	· i	Gien Gen E Buen T	-	Hiting (eller) Pao	34	Nga Vi Ya Mi.
Brother's child (w.s.)	Nga VI Ya Mi	ه د السال	1	Ma Va An Ma Va E Buen Un	***	(Younger).	Leing	Nga Vi Pa Ya.
Wide's besther's child Sister's child (m.s.)	i Nga Vi Pa Ya	Lada .	. ;	Ma Va E Buen Un Ma Va E Buen		Kawn Po Mi-1	Mai Ya	Nga Vi Pa Ya. Nga Vi Pa Ya.
Hashing's sister's child	Nga Vi Pa Ya		-	Ma Va E Mal Un		(Younger). Hting	Leing	
Wife's ester's child Sen's sen (mes)	Nga Vi Pa Ya	،، بالجرا	••	Ma Va Teah Guen Un	=	Kawu Po Ta	Mai Ta	Nga Vi Pa Ya. Nga Vi Pa Ya. Nga E Ti Vi Pa Ya.
Daughter's ann (m	Nga E II VI Pa Ya Nga E Ti VI Pa Ya	Ni Hja	• ]	Ma Un Guen Ma	=	Yia Ta	Ya Ya	Nga E Ti Vi Pa Ya. Nga E Ti Vi Pa Ya.
Caragarates rest (M's")	Nga E Ti Vi Pa Ya Nga E Ti Vi Pa Ya	Ni Hpa		Ya E Mai		Yia Kraw	Ya Ta	Nga Maw.
Daughter's hashand (m.s.)	Nga Maw Nga Vi Pal Ya Mi Ah Pa Maw,	Myur		Holi		Hiting   koin Ninawn	Ta Ni	Nga Vi Pal Ya MI Ah
Daughter's Lusband (w.s.)	Nga Vi Pal Ya Mi Ah Pa Maw.	Myur	· i	Gun		Hiling; Moa		Nga Vi Pai Ya Mi Ab Pa Maw.
Son's wife (m.s.) Son's mife (w.s.) Sister's Lueband (m.s.)	Nga Ku Ma Nga Ku Ma	SI Ma		Boh Gun		Hting, Köln Ninawn Hting, Moa	Pa Ya Mai	Nga Ku Ma. Nga Ku Ma.
Sister's Luchami (m.s.)	Nga Vi Pa Ma	Chi Fu .		Ma Daw		Et Kwe (elder): Po Rameh (younger). O Kwe (elder): Po		Nga Vi Pa Maw. Nga Vi Pa Maw.
Sister's hashand (w.s.) Brother's wife (m.s.)	Nga Vi Pa Maw	Chi Fu	"	Ma An	i	Rabun (younger). Et Kwe (clden; Po	Mai	Nga Vi Pa Maw.
Brother's wife (w.s)	Nga Vi Pa Maw	Mala		Guen An Gun	1	Rameh (younger). O Kwe (elder); Po		Nga Vi Pa Maw.
Son's daughter	Nga Vi Pa Maw	Ma La Ni Ma		Beh	i	Rahun (younger). Et Kwe (elder); Po		Nga Vi Pa Ya Mi Ah Pa Maw
Daughter's dan dies	Nga Vi Pa Ya Mi Ah Pa Maw, Nga Vi Pa Ya Mi Ah	NI Ma	١.	Joh		Rameh (younger). O Kwe (elder); Po	Leing	nga yi Pa ya Mi An I
	Pa Maw.	***************************************	-   -			Rabun (younger).		Pa Maw.
	,						·	

lxiv

#### APPENDIX B-V.

LIST OF TERMS OF RELATIONSHIP IN THE DIALECTS OF THE KARENNI SUBDIVISION OF THE SOUTHERN SHAN STATES.

Father		OF IF		CH SHAN S	DIVIES.		
Son A-hpo Hpo (Hpa Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould Hgould	Terms of Relationship.	Brò.	Mano.	Padaung.	Yinbaw.	Karenni,	Yangalai.
Mong			Нро (Нра				
Elder sister (M. S.) Hewe Bichu Bu Pu Sunger brother (M. S.) Hewe Bichu Bu Pu Sunger sister (M. S.) Hewe Bider sister (M. S.) Hewe Bider sister (M. S.) Hewe Bider sister (M. S.) Hewe Bider sister (M. S.) Hewe Bider sister (M. S.) Hewe Bider sister (M. S.) Hewe Bider sister (M. S.) Hewe Bider sister (M. S.) Hewe Bider sister (M. S.) Hewe Bider sister (M. S.) Hewe Bider sister (M. S.) Hewe Bider sister (M. S.) Hewe Bider sister (M. S.) Hewe Bider sister (M. S.) Hewe Bider sister (M. S.) Hewe Bider sister (M. S.) Hewe Bider sister (M. S.) Hewe Bider sister (M. S.) Hewe Bider sister (M. S.) Hewe Bider sister (M. S.) Hewe Bider sister (M. S.) Hewe Bider sister (M. S.) Hewe Bider sister (M. S.) Hewe Bider sister (M. S.) Hewe Bider sister (M. S.) Hewe Bider sister (M. S.) Hewe Bider sister (M. S.) Hewe Bider sister (M. S.) Hewe Bider sister (M. S.) Heye Make Bider sister (M. S.) Heye Make Bider sister (M. S.) Heye Make Bider sister (M. S.) Heye Make Bider sister (M. S.) Heye Make Bider sister (M. S.) Heye Make Bider sister (M. S.) Mediu Heye Mider (M. S.) Make Bider sister (M. S.) Heye Make Bider (M. S.) Mediu Heye Mider (M. S.) Mediu Heye Mider (M. S.) Mediu Heye Mider (M. S.) Mediu Heye Mider (M. S.) Mediu Heye Mider (M. S.) Mediu Heye Mider (M. S.) Mediu Heye Mider (M. S.) Mediu Heye Mider (M. S.) Mediu Heye Mider (M. S.) Mediu Heye Mider (M. S.) Mediu Heye Mider (M. S.) Mediu Heye Mider (M. S.) Mediu Heye Mider (M. S.) Mediu Heye Mider (M. S.) Mediu Heye Mider (M. S.) Mediu Heye Mider (M. S.) Mediu Heye Mider (M. S.) Mediu Heye Mider (M. S.) All Li Li Li Li Li Li Li Li Li Li Li Li Li			Mo	Hpao-hpra-	Hpaukhpra•	Hpu-hpre-	
Februaria   We-pa-mo   Pu Goi   Wai   Vya   Ka-ve-mon   Nonger sister (M. S.)   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-mā-haw   He-bu-haw   He-bu-haw   He-bu-haw   He-bu-haw   He-bu-haw   He-bu-haw   He-bu-haw   He-bu-haw   He-bu-haw   He-bu-haw   He-bu-haw   He-bu-haw   He-bu-haw   He-bu-haw   He-bu-haw   He-bu-haw   He-bu-haw   He-bu-haw   He-bu-haw   He-bu-haw   He-bu-haw   He-bu-haw   He-bu-haw   He-bu-haw   He-bu-haw	Younger brother (M. S.)	Hē-bu	Bu	Goi-hpré-hko Pu	Wia-hpré-hko Pu	Vya-hprè-hku Per	Ke-pauk.
Vounger sister (M. S.)		He-bu-mā-		71 0 1			
Brother's child (M. S.)		He-bu-mā-mu He-bu-mā-					
Father's brother's wife	Brother's child (M. S.)	Hpo-du					
Father's sister's husband         Modu         Sa         Sa         Modu         Mein           Father sister's husband         Hpa-du         Hpa-du         Hpa-du         Hpa-du         Mein         Maik         Hpidu         Maik         Mein           Father's sister's child         Tha-u-bu         Hpa-du         er's brother's wife</td> <td>Mo-du</td> <td>Mo-du</td> <td>Sa</td> <td>Sa</td> <td></td> <td></td>	Father's brother's wife	Mo-du	Mo-du	Sa	Sa		
Packer   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Steet   Ste		1 1	N. S. S. S. S. S. S. S. S. S. S. S. S. S.				
Wife's brother's child			1	1 573		1	
Mother's brother	Wife's brother's child	mb	D	Hpôkli			
Sister's child (M, S.)			(1 1				
Hyband's sister's child	Sister's child (M. S.)	Hpo du	Hpo-du	Hpôkli	Hpaukdu	Hpu∙dū	Hpo-du.
Mother's sister   Mo-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Hop-du   Ho			1				
Mother's sister's child	Mother's sister	Mo-du	1	Sa	Sa	Mo-du	
Wife's sister's child	Sister's child (W. S.)					1	
Mother's sister's child		} •					
Son's son (M. S.)	Mother's sister's child	Tha-u-bu	Pu-bu	Hpôkli	Hdaukdu	Hpu-du	Hpo-du.
Son's son (W. S.)			1 7 7	1 1 7	1		
Daughter's son (M. S.)			1.1	1.1	Li	Ler	Lai.
Daughter's son (W. S.)   A-II			1 * -				
Mother's mother         A-hpi-ma-mu Hē-wo         Hpē         Hpè         Hpe         A-hpaik.           Husband         Hē-wo         Wo         Gwā         Gwā         Vyè         Ka-vn.           Wife          Mā         Mā         Mā         Mē         Ka-vn.           Wife's father          Mū-pra         Mi-pwa         Pra         Pra         Hprè         Ka-pra.           Daughter's husband (W, S)         Maw         Mi-pwa         Pra         Pra         Hprè         Ka-pra.           Musband's father         Mū-pra         Mi-pwa         Pra         Pra         Hprè         Ma-hko           Son's wife (M, S)         Dè         Dè         Dè         Di         Di         Dya         Ka-pra.           Son's wife (W, S.)         Dè         Dè         Dè         Di         Di         Dya         Ka-diak           Husband's mother         Mū-pra         Mi-pwa         Pra         Pra         Hprè         Ka-diak           Husband's brother         Dē         Nè         Nai         Nai         Nā         Nai           Sister's husband (M, S.)         Dē         Nè         Nai         Nai         Nā         Hk		A 17	1			: •	
Wife          Mā          Pra          Hprè          Ka-pra          Mā          Mā          Nè          Mā          Mā          Nè          Mā          Mā          Nè          Mā          Nè          Mā          Na          Nè          Mā          Na          Nè          Mā          Na          Ne          Mā          Nè          Mā          Na          Ne          Mā          Na          Na          Na          Na          Na          Na          Na          Na          Na <td>Mother's mother</td> <td></td> <td>1 ***</td> <td></td> <td>10.</td> <td>1</td> <td></td>	Mother's mother		1 ***		10.	1	
Wife's father         Mü-pra         Mi-pwa         Pra         Hprè         Ka-pra           Daughter's husband (M. S.)         Maw         Maw         Ma-hko         Ma-hko         Nè         Ma           Daughter's husband (W. S.)         Maw         Mi-pwa         Pra         Hprè         Ka-pra           Daughter's husband (W. S.)         Maw         Mi-pwa         Pra         Hprè         Ka-pra           Daughter's husband (W. S.)         Maw         Mi-pwa         Pra         Pra         Hprè         Ka-pra           Justic (M. S.)         Maw         Mi-pwa         Ma-hko         Ma-hko         Ne         Ma           Son's wife (M. S.)         Dè         Dè         Di         Di         Dya         Ka-pra           Son's wife (W. S.)         Dè         Dè         Di         Di         Dya         Ka-diak           Husband's mother         Mū-pra         Mi-pwa         Pra         Pra         Hprè         Ka-pra           Wife's brother         Dē         Nè         Nai         Nai         Nā         Nein           Sister's husband (M. S.)         Dē         Nè         Nai         Nai         Nā         Hki           Sister's husband (W. S	1337:0-	3.6-				1 - 7	:
Wife's mother          Mū-pra         Mi-pwa          Pra          Hprè          Ka-pra.           Daughter's husband (W, S.)         Maw          Maw          Ma-hko          Ne          Ma.           Husband's father          Mū-pra          Mi-paw          Pra          A-hpro          Ka-pra.           Son's wife (M, S.)          Dè          Dò          Di          Dya          Ka-diak           Husband's mother          Mū-pra          Mi-pwa          Pra          Hprè          Ka-diak           Husband's mother          Dē          Ni-pwa          Pra          Hprè          Ka-diak           Husband's brother          Dē          Nè          Nai          Nā          Nein          Nein          Nā          Hki.          Nai	Wife's father	. Mū-pra	Mi-pwa	1 7 1	Pra		
Daughter's husband (W, S.)   Maw   Maw   Ma-hko   Ma-hko   Ma-hko   Ne   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   Ma-hpro   M			1	1	1		1
Son's wife (M. S.)	Daughter's husband (W. S	.) Maw	Maw	Ma-hko	Ma-hko	Ne	Ma.
Son's wife (W. S.)		1 *** *	1 m . *				
Wife's brother         Dē          Nè          Nai          Nā          Nē          Nai          Nā          Nein.         Hki.         Nai          Nā          Hki.         Hki.         Nai          Nā          Hki.         Hki.         Nai          Nai          Nā          Hki.         Ta-nein.           Husband's brother         Chī          Hki          Nai          Chi          Hki.          Nai          Nai          Chi          Hki.          Nai          Chi          Hki.          Nai          Chi          Hki.          Nai	Son's wife (W.S.)	100	133	Di	Di	Dya	Ka-diak
Sister's husband (M. S.)       De        Nè        Nai        Nā        Hki.         Sister's husband (W. S.)       De        Hki        Nai        Nā        Hki.         Wife's sister        Chī        Hki        Nai        Chi        Ta-nein.         Husband's brother's wife (M. S.)        Chī        Hki        Nai        Chi        Hki.         Brother's wife (W. S.)        Ka-na        Ka-nā        Shan        Chi        Hki.         Brother's wife (W. S.)        Ka-na        Ka-nā        Shan        Chi        Hki.         Wife's sister's husband        Ka-na        Ka-nā        Shan        Ka-nā        Ta-na.         Husband's brother's wife        Ka-na        Ka-na        Ka-nā        Nein        Ka-nā        Ta-yauk.	Husband's mother .	Mū-pra	Mi-pwa	1 31-1		N.T.	
Sister's husband (W. S.)   De						1 27-	
Husband's brother        Chi        Hki        Nai        Chi        Hki.         Brother's wife (W. S.)        Ka-na        Ka-nā        Shan        Chi        Hki.         Wife's sister's husband        Ka-na        Ka-nā        Shan        Ka-nā        Tanein.         Husband's brother's wife        Ka-na        Ka-nā        Nein        Ka-nā        Ta-yauk.	Sister's husband (W. S.).	. De	Hki				
Brother's wife (M. S.)   Chi     Hki     Nai     Shan     Chi     Hki.   Tancin.   Wife's sister's husband   Ka-na     Ka-nā     Ka-nā     Shan     Ka-nā     Ka-nā     Ka-nā     Ka-nā     Ka-nā     Ka-nā     Ka-nā     Ka-nā     Ta-yauk.	77 7 12 1 .1		1	1 37-1	1 31-		
Wife's sister's husband Ka-na Ka-nē Ka-nā Shan Ka-nā Ka-nā Ta-na. Husband's brother's wife Ka-na Ka-na Ka-nā Ka-nā Nein Ka-nā Ta-yauk.	Brother's wife (M. S.)		Hki	Nai	Shan	Chi	Hki.
Husband's brother's wife Ka-na Ka-na Ka-nā Nein Ka-nā Ta-yauk.	Brother's wife (W.S.)		1		l Ci .		
Son's wife's parents   Hpo-maw   Ka-maw   Ka-maw   Ka-maw   Hku-me   Ta-ma.	Husband's brother's wife			l		Ka-nā	Ta-yauk.
	Son's wife's parents	Hpo·maw	Ka-maw	Ko-myè	Ka-maw	Hku-mē	Ta-ma.
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## APPENDIX B-VI.

# TERMS OF RELATIONSHIP IN DIALECTS OF THE SOUTHERN SHAN STATES.

English.	Shan.	Yang Wan Kun.	Yang Hsek.	Yang Lam.	Paungthu.
Father	Paw, U	Pā	Pā	Pa	Hpa.
Mother ···	M6	Mā	M	Ma	Mū.
Elder brother (M.S.)	Pi-Sai, Pi-Ai	Mai-Karame	Mai-Karame	Mri-Karame	Ve Hko.
Elder sister (W.S.)	Pi-Nang	Mai-Kanya	Mai-Kanya	Mai-Kanya	Ve Mu.
Elder sister (M.S.)	Pi-Nang	Mai-Kanya	Mai-Kanya	Mai-Kanya	Ve Mu.
Younger sister (M.S.)	Nawng Ying	Sambo, Drost		Twe Kanya	Hpu Ma.
Cather's brother (elder)	Lung	Deng	Ling	Ling	Hpa Tàn.
Father's brother (Younger)	Paw Ao	Deng	Ling Hsang	Paw	Hpa Nang.
Tather's (elder) brother's wife	Pa	Wa'i	Wa'i	Kun	Mu Tan.
ather's (younger) brother wife	Ā	Wai	Kün	Kun	Mu Nang.
Tather's brother's child	Pi	Mai	Mai	Mai	Ve.
ather's sister (elder)	Pá	Wa'i	Paw	Paw .,	Hpi.
	Mè A	Kun	Wa'i	Twe	Hpi.
father's (elder) sister's husband.	Paw Lung .	Deng	Deng Hsang	Deng Hsang	Hpu.
Sather's (younger) sister's hus-	raw Ma, Ao	Paw	Deng Hsang	Deng Hsang	Hpu.
band. Sather's sister's child	Pi	Mai	Mai	Mri	Mak.
dether's sister's child	Paw Lung	r .	n .	D	
Mother's brother (elder) Mother's brother (younger)		<b>T</b>	Ling Hsang	Ling Hsang	Hpu.
	Paw Na Me Pa	177 25	*** **	117 3.	Hpu, Hai
Mother's brother's wife	73.				Hpi.
Mother's brother's child	Pi	137.7		**	Mak.
Mother's sister (elder) Mother's sister (younger)		*** **	*** **	371 /	Mu Tan. Mu Nang.
Mother's elder sister's husband	Paw Lung	Wa'i Deng	Deng Hsang	Wa'i Deng Hsang	Hpa Tan.
Mother's gounger sister's husband	Pau Na	~ '	<b>~</b> ~ ~ 1		Hpa Nang.
	וייי		84.1	3	Mak.
		Mai )	era - 17a	Mai	Hpu.
	Awk	Ya	Ya Ē	Ya Ē	Hpi.
	n 1	Ta	Ta Ē	Ta Ě	Hpu.
Marit 1		Ya	Va Ē	Ya Ē	Hpi.
, , ,		Ta-O	Kam-E-Ē	Kam-e-Ē	Wa.
1176 1 6	Hpo Paw (Sao)	n !	Paw Hsang	Paw Hsang	Hpu.
****	Me (Sao),	Ma	Kun Ē	12 10 1	Hpi.
Wile's mother	Awk Nai		Kun L	Kun E	11pi.
Husband's father	Paw (Sao)	Pa	Paw Hsang	Paw Hsang	Hpu.
Husband's father Husband's mother	Me (Sao)	Ma	Kun E	Kun Ē	Нрі.
	• • • •	Mai	31-1	Mai	Mak.
Wife's brother (elder) Wife's brother (younger)	Nawng Sai	Hsam Bo	Twe	Twe	Hpu.
17., , ,	Pi Nang	Mai	Mai	Mai	Mu Tan.
17 1 11 1 1 1 1 1 1	Pi	Mai	Mai	Mai	Hpa Tan.
Husband's brother (elder) Husband's brother (younger)	Nawng	Hsam Bo	Twe	Twe	Hpa Nang.
Husband's sister	Pi-Nang	Mai	Mai	Mai	Ka-Ning.
Wife's (elder) sister's husband	Pe-Hkwe	Kaw	Ко Е	Kaw Ē	Hpa Tan.
Wife's (younger) sister's hus-	Nawng Hkwe		Twe £	Twe E	Hpu.
band.		3			•
Husband's brother's wife	Pi-Lo	Mawm	Mawm	Mawm	Mu Tan.
Son's wife's parents (father)	Pu-Lawng	Ta'-Dawng	Ta'-Dawng	Ta'-Dawng	Mak.
Son's wife's parents (mother)	Nai-Lawng	Ya'-Dawng	Ya'-Dawng	Ya'-Dawng	Mawng Po.
Son	Luk Sai	Kawn Karame	Kwan I	Kwan E	Po Hko.
Daughter	Luk Ying	Kawn Kanya	Kwan Kanya 🚶	Kwan Kanya	Po Mu.
Younger brother (M.S.)	Nawng Sai	Sambo Kara-	Taw Karame	Twe	Hpu Hko,
-		me.	T 17	T 17	Har M
Younger sister (W.S.)	Nawng Ying	Sambo Kanya		Twe Kanya	Hpu Mu.
Elder brother (W.S.)	Pi Ai, Pi Sai	Mai Karame	Mai Karame	Mai Karame	Ve Hko.
Younger brother (W.S.)	Nawng Sai	Sambo Kara-	Taw Karame	Twe E	Hpu Hko.
Danit - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 -	1 C-: 1	me. Lan Karame	Pli-Ē	Pli Ē	Po Hko.
Brother's child (M.S.)	Lan Sai, Lan	Lan Karanic	Pli-E		- U IIAU.
	Ying,	Lan Kanya	Pli-Ë	Pli Ē	Po Mu.
Husband's mother's child	Pi, Nawng	Mai	Mai Karame E		Hpatan.
(male).	. 1, . 10.1115	****			Нрапапа
Husband's mother's child	Pi, Nang,	Mai Kanya	Mai Ĕ	Twe E	Mutan,
(female).	Nawng Ying.			=	Munang
1) .1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	Lan	Lan	Pli	Twe	Po.
	Lan	Lan	Pli	Twe	Li.
C* )	Lan	Lan	Pli	Pli	Li.
	Lan	Lan	Pli	Pli	Li.
	Lan	Lan	Pli	Pfi	Ĺi.
	Lan	Lan	Pli	Pli	Po.
Wite's sister's child	Lan	Lan	Pli	Pli	Li.
Son's son (M.S., W.S.) Daughter's son (M.S., W. S.)	Lan	Lan	Pli	Pli	Li.
Wife	Me	Ya-0	Kanya Ē	Kanya E	Ama.
Daughter's husband (M.S.,	Luk Hkwe	Ke-O	Kwan È	Kwan E	Ma.
W.S.)		1	_		-
Son's wife (M.S., W.S.)	Luk Pau	Mwe	Mwe E	Mawn E	Hpanam.
Ridon sisted bushed (118	Pi Hkwe	Kaw	Ko È	Kaw E	Mak.
			_		
Elder sister's husband (M.S.,		10 1-111-	Hkwe Ē	Kkwe E	Mak.
W.S.).	Nawng Hkwe	Sambo Hke	TIKNEL		
W.S.). Younger sister's husband (M.S.,	Nawng Hkwe	Sambo rike			
W.S.). Younger sister's husband (M.S., W.S.)	Nawng Hkwe Pi Lo	Mawm	Mawm	Mawm	Mu Tan.
W.S.). Younger sister's husband (M.S.,	Pi Lo		35		

(M. S.) Man speaking.

(W. S.) Woman

A Br.

#### APPENDIX B-VII.

TERMS OF RELATIONSHIP IN THE HKUN AND LU DIALECTS OF KENGTUNG STATE OF THE SOUTHERN SHAN STATES.

Father	•••	Paw.	Mother's father	Twè-pu.
Mother		Me.	Daughter's son	Lan (M.S. & W.S.).
Elder brother (M.S.)	4.4	Pi-sai-long.	Mother's mother .	Mè-twi (M.S. & W.S.).
Elder sister (W.S.)	•••	Pi-yinglong.	Husband	Hpo.
Elder sister (M.S.)	•••	Pi-ying.	Wife	Me.
Elder brother (W.S.)	• • •	Pi-sai.	Wife's father	Pawme.
Father's brother		Lung.	Daughter's husband	Luk Hkwe (M.S.).
Father's wife		Ao.		Lukpai (W.S.).
Father's child		Pi-sai (senior).	Wife's mother	Me.
,		Nawngsai (junior).	Husband's father	Paw.
Father's sister		Pa.	Camlaifa	Lukpai (M.S. & W.S.).
Father's husband	4	Lung.	Husband's mother	Paw.
Father's child			Wife's brother	Nawngsai.
	•••	Nawng-ying	Sister's husband	Nawnghkwe (M.S.
		(daughter).		& W.S.).
Mother's brother		Lung (senior).	Wife's sister	Pi-nang.
		Na (junior).	Husband's brother	Pi-sai.
Sister's child (M.S.)		Lan.	Brother's wife	Pi-pai (elder brother's
Mother's brother's wi	fe	Pa.		M. S. & W.S.).
Husband's sister's chi	ld	Lan.	,	Nawngpai (younger
Mother's brother's ch	ild	Pi-sai (senior).	•	brother's) M. & W.S.
-		Nawngsai (junior).	Husband's sister	Nawng-ying.
Mother's sister	.,	Pa (senior).	Wife's sister's hus-	Pi-hkwe.
		Na (junior).	band.	
Mother's child	· • • •	Nawngsai (son).	Husband's brother's	Pi-pai.
<b>3.2 3 3.2 3.</b>		Nawng-ying	wife	1
		(daughter).	Son's wife's parents	Pi-sai (f), Pi-ying (m.).
Mother's husband		Lunghkwe.	Son	Luksai.
Wife's sister's child		Lan.	Daughter	Lukying.
Mother's sister's chile	d	Nawngsai (son).	Brother's child	Lansai.
		Nawng-ying	(W.S.)	
		(daughter).	Husband's mother's	Lan.
Father's father		Twè-pu.	child	•
Son's son	•••	Lan (M.S. & W.S.).	Brother's child	Lan.
Father's mother	•••	Twè-ya.	(W.S.)	
	•••	··· = <b>/···</b>	Wife's brother's	Lan.
			child	77 To 1

(M, S.) Man speaking.

(W.S.) Woman speaking.

#### APPENDIX B-VIII.

# TERMS OF RELATIONSHIP IN DIALECTS OF THE NORTHERN ARAKAN DISTRICT.

Father Mother (M. S.)  Father Mother (M. S.)  Father Mother (M. S.)  Father Strother (M. S.)  Father Strother (M. S.)  Father Strother M. S.  Father Strother M. S.  Father Strother M. S.  Father Strother M. S.  Father Strother M. S.  Father Strother M. S.  Father Strother M. S.  Father Strother M. S.  Father Strother M. S.  Father Strother M. S.  Father Strother M. S.  Father Strother M. S.  Father Strother M. S.  Father Strother M. S.  Father Strother M. S.  Father Strother M. S.  Father Strother M. S.  Father Strother M. S.  Father Strother M. S.  Father Strother M. S.  Father Strother M. S.  Father Strother M. S.  Father Strother M. S.  Father M. Sater M. S.  Father M. Sater M. S.  Father Strother M. S.  Father M. Sater M. S.  Father M. Sater M. S.  Father M. Sater M. S.  Father M. Sater M. S.  Father M. Sater M. S.  Father M. Sater M. S.  Father M. Sater M. S.  Father M. Sater M. S.  Father M. Sater M. S.  Father M. Sater M. S.  Father M. Sater M. S.  Father M. Sater M. S.  Father M. Sater M. S.  Father M. Sater M. S.  Father M. Sater M. S.  Father M. Sater M. S.  Father M. Sater M. S.  Father M. Sater M. S.  Father M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater M. Sater	TERMS OF MEDITION					
Mother   Make   Na	English.	Mro.	Ahnu.	Chaungtha.	Kyaw.	Kami.
	Mother Elder brother (M. S.) Elder sister (W. S.) Elder Father's brother Father's brother's wife Father's brother's child Father's sister's child Father's sister's child Mother's sister's child Mother's brother's wife Mother's brother's wife Mother's brother's wife Mother's brother's child Mother's sister's child Mother's sister's child Mother's sister's child Mother's sister's child Father's father Mother's father Father's mother Mother's father Mother's mother Mother's mother Musband Wife's mother Husband's father Husband's father Husband's brother Wife's sister Husband's brother Wife's sister Husband's brother Husband's brother's wife Son's wife's parents Son Daughter Younger brother (M. S.) Younger brother (M. S.) Fother's child (M. S.) Husband's mother's child Sister's child (M. S.) Husband's mother's child Sister's child (M. S.) Husband's sister's child Sister's child (M. S.) Husband's sister's child Sister's child (M. S.) Husband's son (M. S.) Son's wife (M. S.) Daughter's son (M. S.) Son's son (M. S.) Son's wife (M. S.) Son's wife (M. S.) Son's wife (M. S.) Son's wife (M. S.) Son's wife (M. S.) Son's wife (M. S.) Sister's husband (M. S.) Sister's husband (M. S.) Sister's husband (M. S.) Sister's husband (M. S.) Sister's husband (M. S.) Sister's husband (M. S.) Sister's husband (M. S.) Sister's husband (M. S.) Sister's husband (M. S.) Sister's husband (M. S.) Sister's husband (M. S.) Sister's husband (M. S.) Sister's husband (M. S.) Sister's husband (M. S.) Sister's husband (M. S.) Sister's husband (M. S.) Sister's husband (M. S.) Sister's husband (M. S.) Sister's husband (M. S.) Sister's husband (M. S.) Sister's husband (M. S.) Sister's husband (M. S.) Sister's husband (M. S.) Sister's husband (M. S.) Sister's husband (M. S.) Sister's husband (M. S.) Sister's husband (M. S.) Sister's husband (M. S.)	Na We	Nu	Ah Mè Ah Ko Gree Ah Mai Ah Mai Ah Mai Ah Mai Ah Bai Ah Ywai Nyi Ah Ree Ah Khan Ah Khan Ah Khan Ah Ree Yauk Pah Ah Ywai Ah Bai Ah Ywai Ah Bai Ah Ywai Ah Bai Tha Baung Ah Pho Ah Baung Ah Pho Ah Baung Ah Pho Ah Baung Ah Ree Ah Khan Ah Ree Ah Khan Ah Ree Ah Khan Ah Ree Ah Khan Ah Ree Ah Khan Ah Ree Thagaung Ah Khan Ah Ree Ah Khan Ah Ree Ah Khan Ah Ree Thagaung Tha Met Tu Tu Tu Tha Tha Met Tu Tu Tha Tha Mrin Mrin Mrin Mrin Mrin Mrin Mrin Mrin	Nu            Oo            Oo            Oo            Oo            Nauk            Pon Ngak            Pin Ngak            Pon Ngak            Pon Ngak            Pon Ngak            Nauk            Kapu            Kapu            Kapu            Kapu            Kapu            Kapu            Kapu            Kapu            Kapu            Kane            Mauk            Nauk            Nauk            Nauk            Nauk            Nauk            Nauk            Nauk            Nauk            Nauk            Nauk <td>Neik. Yike. Yike. Yike. Yike. Umbai. Nga ai mho. Ah Ni To. Umbai. Ah Nee. Prun. Mouksa. Umpu. Umpe. Natsa. Niketo. Nga At Khi. Umbai. Aumsee. Aumsee. Aumsee. Aumsee. Aumsee. Aumsee. Yo Oh. Umpu. Umpe. Prun. Ah Nee. Natsa. Umbai. Umbai. Yike. Natsa. Sapo. Sanoke. Umbai. Yike. Umbai. Yike. Umbai. Yike. Umbai. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu.</td>	Neik. Yike. Yike. Yike. Yike. Umbai. Nga ai mho. Ah Ni To. Umbai. Ah Nee. Prun. Mouksa. Umpu. Umpe. Natsa. Niketo. Nga At Khi. Umbai. Aumsee. Aumsee. Aumsee. Aumsee. Aumsee. Aumsee. Yo Oh. Umpu. Umpe. Prun. Ah Nee. Natsa. Umbai. Umbai. Yike. Natsa. Sapo. Sanoke. Umbai. Yike. Umbai. Yike. Umbai. Yike. Umbai. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. Katu. 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#### APPENDICES.

#### APPENDIX B-X.

#### TERMS OF RELATIONSHIP IN DIALECTS OF THE CHIN HILLS ADMINISTRATIVE AREA.

## Laiyo dialects.

Father	Ka-pa.	Husband's brother's wife	Ka-pa-sali-wi (or now)
Mother	Ka-nu.		nu-pee.
Elder brother (m.s.)	Ka-00.	Son's wife's parents	Ka-far-te-nu-pee (pa or nu).
Elder sister (w.s.)	Ka-00.	Son	Far-pa.
Elder sister (m.s.)	Far-nu-oo-pa.	Daughter	Far-nu.
Younger sister (m.s.)		Younger brother (m.s.)	Ka-now-pa.
			Ka-now-nu.
Father's brother	Ka-pa-seow.	Younger sister (w.s.)	
Father's brother's wife	Ka-pa-wi-nu-pee.	Elder brother (w.s.)	Tar-pa-oo-pa.
Father's brother's child	Ka-pa-seow-far-te'.	Younger brother (w.s.)	Tar-pa-now-tar
Father's sister	Ka-nee.	Brother's child (m.s.)	Male Ka-oo-far-pa Fem.
Father's sister's husband	Ka-rang.		ka-oo-far-nu.
Father's sister's child	Male Too-pa Fem. Too-nu.	Husband's mother's child	Ka-pa-sali-nu Male Far-
Mother's brother	Ka-nu-tar-pa.		pa. Fem. Far-nu.
Mother's brother's wife	Ka-nu-tar-pa-nu-pee.	Brother's child (w.s.)	Ka-tar-pa-far.
Mother's brother's child	Ka-nu (oo-wi-or-now-wi)	Wife's brother's child	Ka-nu-pee-tar-pa-far-te'.
	far-te'.	Sister's child (m.s.)	Ka-far-nu-far-te'.
Mother's sister	Nu-seow.	Husband's sister's child	Ka-pa-sali-far-nu-far-te'.
	Ka-nu (oo or now) pa-sal.	Sister's child (m.s.)	Ka-far-nu-far-te'.
	Ka-nu (oo or now) far-te'.	TT7:0 1 1 1 1 1 1 T	
Mother's sister's child			Ka-nu-pee-now-nu-far-te.
Father's father	Ka-pa-pa.	Son's son (m.s.)	Ka-tar-pa-far pa.
Father's mother	Ka-pa-nu.	Son's son (w.s.)	Ka-far-pa-far-pa.
Mother's father	Ka-nwee-pa.	Daughter's son (m.s.)	Ka-far-nu-far-pa.
Mother's mother	Ka-nwee-nu.	Daughter's son (w.s.)	Ka-far-nu-far-pa.
Husband	Pa-sal.	Wife	Nu-pee.
Wife's father	Ka-nu-pee-pa.	Daughter's husband (m.s.)	Ka-far-nu pa-sal.
Wife's mother	Ka-nu-pee-nu.	Daughter's husband (w.s.)	
Husband's father	Ka-pa-sal-pa.	Son's wife (m.s.)	Ka-far-pa-nu-pee.
Husband's mother	Ka-pa-sal-nu.	Son's wife (w.s)	Ka-far-pa-nu-pee,
337°C-1- 1	Ka-nu-pee-tar-pa.	Sister's husband (m.s.)	Ka-far-nu-pa-sal.
**************************************	Ka-nu-pee-(oo or now) nu.	Sister's husband (w.s.)	Ka-swe'-pee-pa-sal.
1 In the second 1 1 1 4 had a		Brother's wife (m.s.)	Ka (oo or now) nu noo
Husband's brother	Ka-pa-sali-(oo-or-now).		Ka (oo or now) nu-pee.
Husband's sister	Ka-pa-sali-far-nu (00-pa or	Brother's wife (w.s.)	Ka-tar-pa (oo pa or now
TTP:	now-tar).		tar) nu- pee.
Wife's sister's husband	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pa-		tar) nu- pee.
Wife's sister's husband	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pa- sal.		tar) nu- pee.
Wife's sister's husband	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pa- sal.	dialect.	tar) nu- pee.
	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pa- sal.  Siyin		
Father	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pasal.  Siyin Pa.	Daughter	Tah-nu.
Father Mother	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pa- sal.  Siyin  Pa.  Nū.	Daughter Younger brother	Tah-nu. Nou (m.s.)
Father Mother Elder brother	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pa- sal.  Siyin  Pa.  Nū.  Ou (m.s.)	Daughter Younger brother	Tah-nu. Nou (m.s.) Nou.
Father Elder brother Elder sister	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pa- sal.  Siyin  Pa.  Nū.  Ou (m.s.)  Ou (w.s.)	Daughter Younger brother Brother's child	Tah-nu. Nou (m.s.) Nou. Tah (m.s.)
Father  Mother  Elder brother  Elder sister  Elder } sister	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pasal.  Siyin  Pa.  Nū.  Ou (m.s.)  Ou (w.s.)  Ou (m.s.)	Daughter Younger brother Younger brother Brother's child Husband's mother's child	Tah-nu. Nou (m.s.) Nou. Tah (m.s.) Moe.
Father  Mother  Elder brother  Elder sister  Elder  Younger	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pasal.  Siyin  Pa.  Nū.  Ou (m.s.)  Ou (w.s.)  Ou (m.s.)  Nou (m.s.)	Daughter Younger brother Younger brother Brother's child Husband's mother's child Brother's child	Tah-nu. Nou (m.s.) Nou. Tah (m.s.) Moe. Tah (w.s.)
Father  Mother  Elder brother  Elder sister  Elder } sister	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pasal.  Siyin  Pa.  Nū.  Ou (m.s.)  Ou (w.s.)  Ou (m.s.)  Nou (m.s.)  Pa-niou.	Daughter Younger brother Younger brother Brother's child Husband's mother's child Brother's child Wife's brother's child	Tah-nu. Nou (m.s.) Nou. Tah (m.s.) Moe. Tah (w.s.) Son-pā or Son-nū.
Father  Mother  Elder brother  Elder sister  Elder Younger sister  Father's brother  Father's brother's wife	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pasal.  Siyin  Pa.  Nū.  Ou (m.s.)  Ou (w.s.)  Ou (m.s.)  Nou (m.s.)  Pa-niou.  Nu-niou.	Daughter Younger brother Younger brother Brother's child Husband's mother's child Brother's child Wife's brother's child Sister's child	Tah-nu. Nou (m.s.) Nou. Tah (m.s.) Moe. Tah (w.s.)
Father  Mother  Elder brother  Elder sister  Elder Younger Father's brother	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pasal.  Siyin  Pa.  Nū.  Ou (m.s.)  Ou (w.s.)  Ou (m.s.)  Nou (m.s.)  Pa-niou.	Daughter Younger brother Younger brother Brother's child Husband's mother's child Brother's child Wife's brother's child	Tah-nu. Nou (m.s.) Nou. Tah (m.s.) Moe. Tah (w.s.) Son-pā or Son-nū.
Father  Mother  Elder brother  Elder sister  Elder Younger sister  Father's brother  Father's brother's wife	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pasal.  Siyin  Pa.  Nū.  Ou (m.s.)  Ou (w.s.)  Ou (m.s.)  Nou (m.s.)  Pa-niou.  Nu-niou.	Daughter Younger brother Younger brother Brother's child Husband's mother's child Brother's child Wife's brother's child Sister's child	Tah-nu. Nou (m.s.) Nou. Tah (m.s.) Moe. Tah (w.s.) Son-pā or Son-nū. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (m.s.) Tah.
Father  Mother Elder brother Elder sister Elder Younger sister Father's brother Father's brother's wife Father's brother's child	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pasal.  Siyin  Pa.  Nū.  Ou (m.s.)  Ou (w.s.)  Ou (m.s.)  Nou (m.s.)  Pa-niou.  Nu-niou.  Ou-or-Nou.	Daughter Younger brother Younger brother Brother's child Husband's mother's child Brother's child Wife's brother's child Sister's child Husband's sister's child	Tah-nu. Nou (m.s.) Nou. Tah (m.s.) Moe. Tah (w.s.) Son-pā or Son-nū. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (m.s.)
Father  Mother  Elder brother  Elder sister  Elder Younger } sister  Father's brother  Father's brother's wife  Father's brother's child  Father's sister  Father's sister  Father's sister's husband	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pasal.  Siyin  Pa.  Nū.  Ou (m.s.)  Ou (w.s.)  Ou (m.s.)  Nou (m.s.)  Pa-niou.  Nu-niou.  Ou-or-Nou.  Ni.  Ngān.	Daughter Younger brother Younger brother Brother's child Husband's mother's child Brother's child Wife's brother's child Sister's child Husband's sister's child Sister's child Wife's sister's child	Tah-nu. Nou (m.s.) Nou. Tah (m.s.) Moe. Tah (w.s.) Son-pā or Son-nū. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (m.s.) Tah. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (w.s.). Tah.
Father  Mother  Elder brother  Elder sister  Elder Younger sister  Father's brother  Father's brother's wife  Father's sister  Father's sister  Father's sister  Father's sister's husband Father's sister's child	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pasal.  Siyin  Pa.  Nū.  Ou (m.s.)  Ou (w.s.)  Ou (m.s.)  Nou (m.s.)  Pa-niou.  Nu-niou.  Ou-or-Nou.  Ni.  Ngān.  Tu-pa or Tu-nu.	Daughter Younger brother Younger brother Brother's child Husband's mother's child Brother's child Wife's brother's child Sister's child Husband's sister's child Sister's child Wife's sister's child Son's son	Tah-nu. Nou (m.s.) Nou. Tah (m.s.) Moe. Tah (w.s.) Son-pā or Son-nū. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (m.s.) Tah. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (w.s.). Tah. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (w.s.).
Father  Mother  Elder brother  Elder sister  Elder Younger sister  Father's brother swife  Father's brother's child  Father's sister  Father's sister  Father's sister's husband  Father's brother  Mother's brother	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pasal.  Siyin  Pa.  Nū.  Ou (m.s.)  Ou (w.s.)  Ou (m.s.)  Nou (m.s.)  Pa-niou.  Nu-niou.  Ou-or-Nou.  Ni.  Ngān.  Tu-pa or Tu-nu.  Pu.	Daughter Younger brother Younger brother Brother's child Husband's mother's child Brother's child Wife's brother's child Sister's child Husband's sister's child Sister's child Wife's sister's child Son's son Son's son	Tah-nu. Nou (m.s.) Nou. Tah (m.s.) Moe. Tah (w.s.) Son-pā or Son-nū. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (m.s.) Tah. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (w.s.). Tah. Tū (m.s.). Tū (m.s.).
Father  Mother  Elder brother  Elder sister  Elder Younger sister  Father's brother swife  Father's brother's child  Father's sister  Father's sister  Father's sister's husband  Father's sister's child  Mother's brother  Mother's brother	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pasal.  Siyin  Pa.  Nū.  Ou (m.s.)  Ou (w.s.)  Ou (m.s.)  Nou (m.s.)  Pa-niou.  Nu-niou.  Ou-or-Nou.  Ni.  Ngān.  Tu-pa or Tu-nu.  Pu.  Son-nu.	Daughter Younger brother Younger brother Brother's child Husband's mother's child Brother's child Wife's brother's child Sister's child Husband's sister's child Sister's child Sister's child Son's son Son's son Daughter's son	Tah-nu. Nou (m.s.) Nou. Tah (m.s.) Moe. Tah (w.s.) Son-pā or Son-nū. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (m.s.) Tah. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (w.s.). Tah. Tū (m.s.). Tū (w.s.) Tū (w.s.)
Father  Mother  Elder brother  Elder sister  Elder younger sister  Father's brother swife  Father's brother's child  Father's sister  Father's sister  Father's sister  Mother's sister's child  Mother's brother  Mother's brother's wife  Mother's brother's child	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pasal.  Siyin  Pa.  Nū.  Ou (m.s.)  Ou (m.s.)  Ya-niou.  Nu-niou.  Ou-or-Nou.  Ni.  Ngān.  Tu-pa or Tu-nu.  Pu.  Son-nu.  Pū.	Daughter Younger brother Younger brother Brother's child Husband's mother's child Brother's child Wife's brother's child Sister's child Husband's sister's child Sister's child Wife's sister's child Son's son Son's son Daughter's son Daughter's son	Tah-nu. Nou (m.s.) Nou. Tah (m.s.) Moe. Tah (w.s.) Son-pā or Son-nū. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (m.s.) Tah. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (w.s.). Tah. Tū (m.s.). Tū (w.s.) Tū (w.s.) Tū (w.s.)
Father  Mother  Elder brother  Elder sister  Elder younger sister  Father's brother's wife  Father's brother's child  Father's sister  Father's sister  Father's sister's child  Mother's brother  Mother's brother's wife  Mother's brother's wife  Mother's brother's child  Mother's sister	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pasal.  Siyin  Pa.  Nū.  Ou (m.s.)  Ou (m.s.)  Ya-niou.  Nu-niou.  Ou-or-Nou.  Ni.  Ngān.  Tu-pa or Tu-nu.  Pu.  Son-nu.  Pū.  Nu Nioū.	Daughter Younger brother Younger brother Brother's child Husband's mother's child Brother's child Wife's brother's child Sister's child Sister's child Wife's sister's child Son's son Son's son Daughter's son Daughter's son Wife	Tah-nu. Nou (m.s.) Nou. Tah (m.s.) Moe. Tah (w.s.) Son-pā or Son-nū. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (m.s.) Tah. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (w.s.). Tāh. Tū (m.s.). Tū (w.s.) Tū (w.s.) Tū (w.s.) Tū (w.s.) Yi.
Father  Mother  Elder brother  Elder sister  Elder younger sister  Father's brother swife  Father's brother's child  Father's sister  Father's sister shusband  Father's sister's child  Mother's brother swife  Mother's brother swife  Mother's brother's child  Mother's sister  Mother's sister shusband	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pasal.  Siyin  Pa.  Nū.  Ou (m.s.)  Ou (w.s.)  Ou (m.s.)  Nou (m.s.)  Pa-niou.  Nu-niou.  Ou-or-Nou.  Ni.  Ngān.  Tu-pa or Tu-nu.  Pu.  Son-nu.  Pū.  Nu Nioū.  Mark-pa.	Daughter Younger brother Younger brother Brother's child Husband's mother's child Brother's child Wife's brother's child Sister's child Husband's sister's child Sister's child Sister's child Son's son Son's son Daughter's son Daughter's son Wife Daughter's husband	Tah-nu. Nou (m.s.) Nou. Tah (m.s.) Moe. Tah (w.s.) Son-pā or Son-nū. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (m.s.) Tah. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (w.s.). Tah. Tū (m.s.) Tū (w.s.) Tū (w.s.) Tū (w.s.) Yi. Mark-pa (m.s.)
Father  Mother  Elder brother  Elder sister  Elder younger sister  Father's brother's wife  Father's brother's child Father's sister  Father's sister  Father's sister's husband Father's sister's child  Mother's brother  Mother's brother's wife Mother's brother's wife Mother's sister  Mother's sister  Mother's sister  Mother's sister's child	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pasal.  Siyin  Pa.  Nū. Ou (m.s.) Ou (w.s.) Ou (m.s.) Nou (m.s.) Pa-niou. Nu-niou. Ou-or-Nou. Ni. Ngān. Tu-pa or Tu-nu. Pu. Son-nu. Pū. Nu Nioū. Mark-pa. Nil.	Daughter Younger brother Younger brother Brother's child Husband's mother's child Brother's child Wife's brother's child Sister's child Husband's sister's child Sister's child Wife's sister's child Son's son Son's son Daughter's son Daughter's son Wife Daughter's husband Daughter's husband	Tah-nu. Nou (m.s.) Nou. Tah (m.s.) Moe. Tah (w.s.) Son-pā or Son-nū. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (m.s.) Tah. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (w.s.). Tah. Tū (m.s.) Tū (w.s.) Tū (w.s.) Tū (w.s.) Yi. Mark-pa (m.s.) Mark-pa (w.s.)
Father  Mother  Elder brother  Elder sister  Elder younger sister  Father's brother's wife  Father's brother's child  Father's sister  Father's sister  Father's sister's husband  Father's brother  Mother's brother's wife  Mother's brother's wife  Mother's brother's child  Mother's brother's child  Mother's sister  Mother's sister  Mother's sister  Mother's sister  Mother's sister  Mother's sister  Mother's sister  Mother's sister  Mother's sister's husband  Mother's sister's child  Father's father	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pasal.  Siyin  Pa.  Nū. Ou (m.s.) Ou (w.s.) Ou (m.s.) Nou (m.s.) Pa-niou. Nu-niou. Ou-or-Nou. Ni. Ngān. Tu-pa or Tu-nu. Pu. Son-nu. Pū. Nu Nioū. Mark-pa. Nil. Pū.	Daughter Younger brother Younger brother Brother's child Husband's mother's child Brother's child Wife's brother's child Sister's child Husband's sister's child Sister's child Wife's sister's child Son's son Daughter's son Daughter's son Daughter's husband Daughter's husband Son's wife Son's wife Son's wife	Tah-nu. Nou (m.s.) Nou. Tah (m.s.) Moe. Tah (w.s.) Son-pā or Son-nū. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (m.s.) Tah. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (w.s.). Tah. Tū (m.s.) Tū (w.s.) Tū (w.s.) Tū (w.s.) Yi. Mark-pa (m.s.) Mark-pa (w.s.) Moe-nū (m.s.)
Father  Mother  Elder brother  Elder sister  Elder younger sister  Father's brother's wife  Father's brother's child father's sister  Father's sister  Father's sister's husband father's sister's child  Mother's brother  Mother's brother's wife Mother's brother's wife Mother's brother's child Mother's sister  Mother's sister  Mother's sister shusband Mother's sister's child  Father's father  Father's mother	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pasal.  Siyin  Pa.  Nū. Ou (m.s.) Ou (w.s.) Ou (m.s.) Nou (m.s.) Pa-niou. Nu-niou. Ou-or-Nou. Ni. Ngān. Tu-pa or Tu-nu. Pu. Son-nu. Pū. Nu Nioū. Mark-pa. Nil. Pū. Pi.	Daughter Younger brother Younger brother Brother's child Husband's mother's child Brother's child Wife's brother's child Sister's child Husband's sister's child Sister's child Wife's sister's child Son's son Daughter's son Daughter's son Daughter's son Wife Daughter's husband Daughter's husband Son's wife Son's wife Son's wife	Tah-nu. Nou (m.s.) Nou. Tah (m.s.) Moe. Tah (w.s.) Son-pā or Son-nū. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (m.s.) Tah. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (w.s.). Tah. Tū (m.s.) Tū (w.s.) Tū (w.s.) Tū (w.s.) Yi. Mark-pa (m.s.) Moe-nū (w.s.) Moe-nū (w.s.)
Father  Mother  Elder brother  Elder sister  Elder younger sister  Father's brother's wife  Father's brother's child father's sister  Father's sister  Father's sister's husband father's sister's child  Mother's brother  Mother's brother's wife Mother's brother's wife Mother's brother's child Mother's sister  Mother's sister's husband Mother's sister's child  Father's father  Father's father  Mother's father	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pasal.  Siyin  Pa.  Nū. Ou (m.s.) Ou (w.s.) Ou (m.s.) Nou (m.s.) Pa-niou. Nu-niou. Ou-or-Nou. Ni. Ngān. Tu-pa or Tu-nu. Pu. Son-nu. Pū. Nu Nioū. Mark-pa. Nil. Pū. Pi. Pi. Pi.	Daughter Younger brother Younger brother Brother's child Husband's mother's child Brother's child Wife's brother's child Sister's child Husband's sister's child Sister's child Sister's child Sister's child Son's son Daughter's son Daughter's son Daughter's son Wife Daughter's husband Daughter's husband Son's wife Son's wife Sister's husband	Tah-nu. Nou (m.s.) Nou. Tah (m.s.) Moe. Tah (w.s.) Son-pā or Son-nū. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (m.s.) Tah. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (w.s.). Tāh. Tū (m.s.) Tū (w.s.) Tū (w.s.) Tū (w.s.) Yi. Mark-pa (m.s.) Moe-nū (w.s.) Moe-nū (w.s.) Mark-pa (m.s.)
Father  Mother  Elder brother  Elder sister  Elder younger } sister  Younger } sister  Father's brother's wife  Father's brother's child  Father's sister's husband  Father's brother's wife  Mother's brother's wife  Mother's brother's wife  Mother's brother's wife  Mother's sister  Mother's sister shusband  Mother's sister shusband  Mother's sister  Mother's sister  Mother's sister  Mother's father  Father's father  Mother's father  Mother's father  Mother's father	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pasal.  Siyin  Pa.  Nū. Ou (m.s.) Ou (w.s.) Ou (m.s.) Nou (m.s.) Pa-niou. Nu-niou. Ou-or-Nou. Ni. Ngān. Tu-pa or Tu-nu. Pu. Son-nu. Pū. Nu Nioū. Mark-pa. Nil. Pū. Pi. Pi. Pi. Pi.	Daughter Younger brother Younger brother Brother's child Husband's mother's child Brother's child Wife's brother's child Sister's child Husband's sister's child Sister's child Wife's sister's child Son's son Daughter's son Daughter's son Daughter's husband Daughter's husband Son's wife Son's wife Son's wife Son's wife Sister's husband Sister's husband Sister's husband Sister's husband Sister's husband Sister's husband	Tah-nu. Nou (m.s.) Nou. Tah (m.s.) Moe. Tah (w.s.) Son-pā or Son-nū. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (m.s.) Tah. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (w.s.). Tāh. Tū (m.s.) Tū (w.s.) Tū (w.s.) Yi. Mark-pa (m.s.) Moe-nū (w.s.) Moe-nū (w.s.) Mark-pa (m.s.) Ou (w.s.)
Father  Mother  Elder brother  Elder sister  Elder younger } sister  Younger } sister  Father's brother's wife  Father's brother's child  Father's sister's husband  Father's brother's wife  Mother's brother's wife  Mother's brother's wife  Mother's sister's husband  Mother's sister  Mother's sister shusband  Mother's sister  Mother's sister  Mother's sister  Mother's sister  Mother's sister  Mother's father  Father's father  Mother's mother  Mother's mother  Mother's mother  Husband	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pasal.  Siyin  Pa.  Nū. Ou (m.s.) Ou (w.s.) Ou (m.s.) Nou (m.s.) Pa-niou. Nu-niou. Ou-or-Nou. Ni. Ngān. Tu-pa or Tu-nu. Pu. Son-nu. Pū. Nu Nioū. Mark-pa. Nil. Pū. Pi. Pi. Pi. Pi. Pasall.	Daughter Younger brother Younger brother Brother's child Husband's mother's child Brother's child Wife's brother's child Sister's child Wife's sister's child Sister's child Sister's child Son's son Daughter's son Daughter's son Daughter's husband Daughter's husband Son's wife Son's wife Son's wife Sister's husband Sister's husband Sister's husband Sister's husband Sister's husband Sister's husband Sister's husband Sister's husband Sister's husband	Tah-nu. Nou (m.s.) Nou. Tah (m.s.) Moe. Tah (w.s.) Son-pā or Son-nū. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (m.s.) Tah. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (w.s.). Tāh. Tū (m.s.) Tū (w.s.) Tū (w.s.) Yi. Mark-pa (m.s.) Moe-nū (w.s.) Moe-nū (w.s.) Mark-pa (m.s.) Nou. Ou (w.s.) Nou.
Father  Mother  Elder brother  Elder sister  Elder sister  Father's brother swife  Father's brother's child Father's sister  Father's sister's husband Father's brother  Mother's brother swife  Mother's brother's wife  Mother's brother's wife  Mother's sister's child  Mother's sister's child  Mother's sister  Mother's sister  Mother's sister  Mother's sister  Mother's sister  Mother's father  Father's mother  Mother's mother  Mother's father  Mother's father  Mother's father  Mother's father  Mother's father  Mother's father  Mother's father	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pasal.  Siyin  Pa.  Nū. Ou (m.s.) Ou (w.s.) Ou (m.s.) Nou (m.s.) Pa-niou. Nu-niou. Ou-or-Nou. Ni. Ngān. Tu-pa or Tu-nu. Pu. Son-nu. Pū. Nu Nioū. Mark-pa. Nil. Pū. Pi. Pi. Pi. Pi. Pasall. Son-pa.	Daughter Younger brother Younger brother Brother's child Husband's mother's child Brother's child Wife's brother's child Sister's child Wife's sister's child Sister's child Sister's child On's son Son's son Daughter's son Daughter's son Daughter's husband Daughter's husband Son's wife Son's wife Son's wife Sister's husband Sister's husband Sister's husband Sister's husband Sister's husband Sister's husband Sister's husband Sister's husband Sister's husband Sister's husband Sister's husband Sister's husband Sister's husband Sister's husband Husband's brother Husband's sister	Tah-nu. Nou (m.s.) Nou. Tah (m.s.) Moe. Tah (w.s.) Son-pā or Son-nū. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (m.s.) Tah. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (w.s.). Tāh. Tū (m.s.) Tū (w.s.) Tū (w.s.) Yi. Mark-pa (m.s.) Moe-nū (w.s.) Moe-nū (w.s.) Mark-pa (m.s.) Ou (w.s.)
Father  Mother  Elder brother  Elder sister  Elder younger } sister  Younger } sister  Father's brother's wife  Father's brother's child  Father's sister's husband  Father's brother's wife  Mother's brother's wife  Mother's brother's wife  Mother's sister's husband  Mother's sister  Mother's sister shusband  Mother's sister  Mother's sister  Mother's sister  Mother's sister  Mother's sister  Mother's father  Father's father  Mother's mother  Mother's mother  Mother's mother  Husband	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pasal.  Siyin  Pa.  Nū. Ou (m.s.) Ou (w.s.) Ou (m.s.) Nou (m.s.) Pa-niou. Nu-niou. Ou-or-Nou. Ni. Ngān. Tu-pa or Tu-nu. Pu. Son-nu. Pū. Nu Nioū. Mark-pa. Nil. Pū. Pi. Pi. Pi. Pi. Pasall.	Daughter Younger brother Younger brother Brother's child Husband's mother's child Brother's child Wife's brother's child Sister's child Husband's sister's child Sister's child Sister's child Son's son Son's son Daughter's son Daughter's son Wife Daughter's husband Daughter's husband Son's wife Son's wife Son's wife Sister's husband Sister's husband Sister's husband Sister's husband Sister's husband Sister's husband Husband's brother Husband's sister	Tah-nu. Nou (m.s.) Nou. Tah (m.s.) Moe. Tah (w.s.) Son-pā or Son-nū. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (m.s.) Tah. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (w.s.). Tāh. Tū (m.s.) Tū (w.s.) Tū (w.s.) Yi. Mark-pa (m.s.) Moe-nū (w.s.) Moe-nū (w.s.) Mark-pa (m.s.) Nou. Ou (w.s.) Nou.
Father  Mother  Elder brother  Elder sister  Elder sister  Father's brother swife  Father's brother's child Father's sister  Father's sister's husband Father's brother  Mother's brother swife  Mother's brother's wife  Mother's brother's wife  Mother's sister's child  Mother's sister's child  Mother's sister  Mother's sister  Mother's sister  Mother's sister  Mother's sister  Mother's father  Father's mother  Mother's mother  Mother's father  Mother's father  Mother's father  Mother's father  Mother's father  Mother's father  Mother's father	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pasal.  Siyin  Pa.  Nū. Ou (m.s.) Ou (w.s.) Ou (m.s.) Nou (m.s.) Pa-niou. Nu-niou. Ou-or-Nou. Ni. Ngān. Tu-pa or Tu-nu. Pu. Son-nu. Pū. Nu Nioū. Mark-pa. Nil. Pū. Pi. Pi. Pi. Pi. Pasall. Son-pa.	Daughter Younger brother Younger brother Brother's child Husband's mother's child Brother's child Wife's brother's child Sister's child Husband's sister's child Sister's child Sister's child Son's son Son's son Daughter's son Daughter's son Wife Daughter's husband Daughter's husband Son's wife Son's wife Son's wife Sister's husband Sister's husband Sister's husband Sister's husband Sister's husband Sister's husband Husband's brother Husband's sister	Tah-nu. Nou (m.s.) Nou. Tah (m.s.) Moe. Tah (w.s.) Son-pā or Son-nū. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (m.s.) Tah. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (w.s.). Tū (m.s.) Tū (w.s.) Tū (w.s.) Yi. Mark-pa (m.s.) Moe-nū (w.s.) Moe-nū (w.s.) Mou. Nou. Moe. Nu-pal.
Father  Mother  Elder brother  Elder sister  Elder } sister  Father's brother swife  Father's brother's child Father's sister  Father's sister's husband Father's brother  Mother's brother's wife Mother's brother's wife Mother's brother's child  Mother's sister  Mother's sister shusband Mother's sister  Mother's sister  Mother's sister  Mother's sister  Mother's father  Father's mother  Wother's father  Mother's father  Mother's mother  Mother's mother  Mother's mother  Mother's mother  Mother's father  Mother's mother  Mother's mother	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pasal.  Siyin  Pa.  Nū. Ou (m.s.) Ou (w.s.) Ou (m.s.) Nou (m.s.) Pa-niou. Nu-niou. Ou-or-Nou. Ni. Ngān. Tu-pa or Tu-nu. Pu. Son-nu. Pū. Nu Nioū. Mark-pa. Nil. Pū. Pi. Pi. Pi. Pi. Pi. Pasall. Son-pa. Son-nū.	Daughter Younger brother Younger brother Brother's child Husband's mother's child Brother's child Wife's brother's child Sister's child Husband's sister's child Sister's child Sister's child Son's son Son's son Daughter's son Daughter's son Daughter's husband Daughter's husband Son's wife Son's wife Son's wife Sister's husband Husband's brother Husband's sister Wife's sister's husband Husband's brother	Tah-nu. Nou (m.s.) Nou. Tah (m.s.) Moe. Tah (w.s.) Son-pā or Son-nū. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (m.s.) Tah. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (w.s.). Tū (m.s.) Tū (w.s.) Tū (w.s.) Yi. Mark-pa (m.s.) Moe-nū (w.s.) Moe-nū (w.s.) Mou. Nou. Moe. Nu-pal.
Father  Mother  Elder brother  Elder sister  Elder sister  Father's brother  Father's brother's wife  Father's brother's child  Father's sister  Father's sister shusband  Father's brother  Mother's brother's wife  Mother's brother's wife  Mother's brother's wife  Mother's brother's wife  Mother's sister's child  Mother's sister  Mother's sister  Mother's sister shusband  Mother's sister shusband  Mother's sister  Mother's father  Father's mother  Mother's father  Mother's father  Husband  Wife's mother  Husband's father  Husband's mother  Husband's mother  Husband's mother  Wife's brother	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pasal.  Siyin  Pa.  Nū. Ou (m.s.) Ou (w.s.) Ou (m.s.) Pa-niou. Nu-niou. Ou-or-Nou. Ni. Ngān. Tu-pa or Tu-nu. Pu. Son-nu. Pū. Nu Nioū. Mark-pa. Nil. Pū. Pi. Pi. Pi. Pi. Pi. Pi. Pi. Po. Pi. Posall. Son-pa. Son-nū. Toe-pasall.	Daughter Younger brother Younger brother Brother's child Husband's mother's child Brother's child Wife's brother's child Sister's child Husband's sister's child Sister's child Sister's child Son's son Son's son Daughter's son Daughter's son Daughter's husband Daughter's husband Son's wife Son's wife Sister's husband Husband's brother Husband's sister Wife's sister's husband Husband's brother Husband's brother Husband's brother's wife Son's wife's parents	Tah-nu. Nou (m.s.) Nou. Tah (m.s.) Moe. Tah (w.s.) Son-pā or Son-nū. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (m.s.) Tah. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (w.s.). Tāh. Tū (m.s.) Tū (w.s.) Tū (w.s.) Yi. Mark-pa (m.s.) Moe-nū (w.s.) Moe-nū (w.s.) Nou. Moe. Nu-pal. Nil. Nil.
Father  Mother  Elder brother  Elder sister  Elder sister  Father's brother swife  Father's brother's wife  Father's sister  Father's sister schild  Mother's sister's husband Father's brother  Mother's brother's wife Mother's brother's wife Mother's sister  Mother's brother's child  Mother's sister's husband Mother's sister  Mother's sister  Mother's sister  Mother's father  Father's mother  Husband  Wife's mother  Husband's father  Husband's mother  Husband's mother	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pasal.  Siyin  Pa.  Nū. Ou (m.s.) Ou (w.s.) Ou (m.s.) Pa-niou. Nu-niou. Ou-or-Nou. Ni. Ngān. Tu-pa or Tu-nu. Pu. Son-nu. Pū. Nu Nioū. Mark-pa. Nil. Pū. Pi. Pi. Pi. Pi. Pi. Pi. Pi. Po. Pi. Po. Pi. Po. Pi. Po. Po-pasall. Son-pa. Son-nū. Toe-pasall. Toe-nu-pi. Son-pa.	Daughter Younger brother Younger brother Brother's child Husband's mother's child Brother's child Wife's brother's child Sister's child Sister's child Wife's sister's child Sister's child Son's son Son's son Daughter's son Daughter's son Daughter's husband Daughter's husband Son's wife Son's wife Son's wife Sister's husband Husband's brother Husband's sister Wife's sister's husband Husband's brother Husband's brother Husband's brother's wife Son's wife's parents Brother's wife	Tah-nu. Nou (m.s.) Nou. Tah (m.s.) Moe. Tah (w.s.) Son-pā or Son-nū. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (m.s.) Tah. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (w.s.). Tū (m.s.) Tū (w.s.) Tū (w.s.) Yi. Mark-pa (m.s.) Moe-nū (w.s.) Moe-nū (w.s.) Moe-nū (w.s.) Nou. Moe. Nu-pal. Nil. Nil. Nil. Ou-nu (m.s.)
Father  Mother  Elder brother  Elder sister  Elder younger } sister  Younger } sister  Father's brother's wife  Father's brother's child  Father's sister  Father's sister's husband  Father's brother swife  Mother's brother swife  Mother's brother's wife  Mother's brother's wife  Mother's brother's wife  Mother's brother's child  Mother's sister  Mother's sister shusband  Mother's sister's child  Father's father  Father's father  Mother's father  Wother's mother  Husband  Wife's father  Wife's mother  Husband's mother  Husband's mother  Wife's brother  Wife's brother	Ka-nu-pee (wi or now) pasal.  Siyin  Pa.  Nū. Ou (m.s.) Ou (w.s.) Ou (m.s.) Pa-niou. Nu-niou. Ou-or-Nou. Ni. Ngān. Tu-pa or Tu-nu. Pu. Son-nu. Pū. Nu Nioū. Mark-pa. Nil. Pū. Pi. Pi. Pi. Pi. Pi. Pi. Pi. Po. Pi. Posall. Son-pa. Son-nū. Toe-pasall. Toe-nu-pi.	Daughter Younger brother Younger brother Brother's child Husband's mother's child Brother's child Wife's brother's child Sister's child Sister's child Wife's sister's child Sister's child Son's son Son's son Daughter's son Daughter's son Daughter's husband Daughter's husband Son's wife Son's wife Son's wife Sister's husband Husband's brother Husband's sister Wife's sister's husband Husband's brother Husband's brother Husband's brother's wife Son's wife's parents Brother's wife	Tah-nu. Nou (m.s.) Nou. Tah (m.s.) Moe. Tah (w.s.) Son-pā or Son-nū. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (m.s.) Tah. Tu-pa or Tu-nu (w.s.). Tāh. Tū (m.s.) Tū (w.s.) Tū (w.s.) Yi. Mark-pa (m.s.) Moe-nū (w.s.) Moe-nū (w.s.) Nou. Moe. Nu-pal. Nil. Nil.

# APPENDIX B-X-concluded.

# TERMS OF RELATIONSHIP IN DIALECTS OF THE CHIN HILLS ADMINISTRATIVE AREA.

## Haka dialect or Boungshe.

Father  Mother  Elder brother (m.s.)  Elder sister (w.s.)  Younger sister (m.s.)  Father's brother  Father's brother's wife  Father's brother's child  Father's sister	K' pā. K' nô. K' û. K' û. K' farr; K' û. K' farr. K' pā. K' nŭ. K' nāo. K' nî.	Daughter K' fa-nu. Younger brother (m.s.) K' nāo. Younger sister (w.s.) K' nāo. Elder K' trā; K' u. Brother (w.s.) younger Brother's child (m.s.) K' u fa; K' fā. Husband's mother's child  (if daughter, Elder) K' û (younger)
Father's sister's husband	K'trang.	K'não.
Father's sister's child	K' nî fā; K' tû.	Brother's child (w.s.) K' và.
Mother's brother (elder)	K' pù.	Wife's brother's child K' nupî trā fa
Mother's brother's wife	K' pî.	Sister's child (m.s.) K' tu.
Mother's brother's child	K' pû,	Husband's sister's child K' tu.
Mother's sister	K' nû.	Sister's child (w.s.) K' fā.
Mother's sister's husband		Wise's sister's child K' fā.
Mother's sister's child		Son's son (m.s.) K' tu.
Father's father	K' pu.	Son's son (w.s.) K' tu.
Father's mother	K' pî.	Daughter's son (m.s.) K' tu.
Mother's father	K' pu.	Daughter's son (w.s.) K' tu.
Mother's mother	K' pî.	Wife Nupî.
Husband	Vā.	Daughter's husband (m.s.) K' tu.
Wife's father	K' pu.	Daughter's husband (w.s.) K' tu.
Wife's mother	K' pî.	Son's wife (m.s.) K', fā.
Husband's father	K' pā.	Son's wife (w.s.) K' fā.
Husband's mother	K' nu.	Sister's husband (m.s.) K' tu.
Wife's brother	K' pu	Sister's husband (w.s.) K' tu.
Wife's sister (younger)	K' nau.	Brother's wife (m.s.) (elder) K'u
Husband's brother	K' trā.	(younger) K' não
Husband's sister (elder)	K' nî (younger)	(if about the same age) K' maw (if older)
• .	K' nau.	K' u. ' ~
Son's wife's parents	K' pu le K' pî.	(if younger) K' nāo.
Son	K' fā-pa.	Brother's wife (w,s.) K' nāo.

(M. S.) Man speaking.

(W. S.) Woman speaking.

#### APPENDICES.

# APPENDIX B-XI.

# LIST OF TERMS OF RELATIONSHIP IN THE KADU LANGUAGE.

Father	Awa.	Husband's sister	
Mother	Amo.	Wife's sister's husband	Yauk-pha.
Elder brother (M. S.)	Ao-mu.	Husband's brother's wife	
Elder sister (W. S.)	Ah-tay.	Son's wife's parents	Khay-mat.
Elder sister (M.S.)	Do.	Son	Sa.
Younger sister (M. S.)	Na-si.	Daughter	Dò.
Father's brother	Ok-si.	Younger brother (M. S.)	Na-si.
'Father's brother's wife	Ah-shi,	Younger brother (W.S.)	Do.
Father's brother's child	Na-si.	Brother (W.S.) Elder	Alı-mu-shan.
Father's sister	Na-ton.	Brother (W.S.) Younger	Yon.
Father's sister's husband	Yauk-pha.	Brother's child (M. S.)	Do.
Father's sister's child	Na-si.	Husband's mother's child	Wan-si.
Mother's brother	Wan-si.	Brother's child (W.S.)	Yon.
Mother's brother's wife	Na-ton.	Wife's brother's child	Ďo.
Mother's brother's child	Na-si.	Sister's child (M. S.)	Do.
Mother's sister	Ah-si.	Husband's sister's child	Do.
Mother's sister's hus-	Wan-si.	Sister (W. S.)	Ah-tay.
band.		Wife's sister's child	Yon.
Mother's sister's child	Na-si.	C - 12	Sa-don.
City of and a Sabban	Ok-naing.	Son's son (M. S.) Son's son (W. S.) Daughter's son (M. S.) Daughter's son (W. S.)	Do.
Father's mother  Mother's mother	3	Daughter's son 등	Do.
결정   Father's mother	Ah-htaung.	(M. S.) ^날	
부출기	3	Daughter's son	Do.
Mother's father	Ok-htaung.	(W. S.) 5	_ •
E	3	Wife	Eit.
Mother's mother	Ah-htaung.	Daughter's hus-	Lok-kway.
Unchand	Haela	band (M. S.) Daughter's husband (W. S.) Son's wife (W. S.) Son's wife (M. S.)	
(Wife's father	Paw-saung.	Daughter's hus-	Do.
	S.	band (W. S.) [구류	~
TI Wife's mother	Me-saung.	Son's wife (W. 2.5	
.쿠.투 } ***********************************		S.)	
를 할 ] Husband's father	Paw-saung.	Son's wife (M. 20	
## 1103521103	1 211 30015	S.)	
Husband's mothe	r Me-saung.	Sister's husband (M. S.)	Pi-kway.
Wife's brother	Yauk-pha.	Sister's husband (W. S.)	Do.
Husband's brother	Ok-si.	Brother's wife (M. S.)	Ah-tay
Wife's father  Wife's mother  Husband's father  Wife's brother Husband's brother  Wife's sister	Naung-saung.	Brother's wife (W. S.)	Do.
11 11C 2 2125Ct 11'	.,	2,000	20.

(M. S.)=Man speaking.

(W. S.)=Woman speaking.

### APPENDIX B-XII.

#### LIST OF TERMS OF RELATIONSHIP IN THE TALAING LANGUAGE

LIST OF TERMS	OF RELATIONSH	IP IN THE TALAING LANG	GUAGE:
Father	Apa.	Son's wife's parents	Kun-sai-kun.
Mother	Yaing.	•	Apa-ha-aw-oar.
Elder brother (M. S.)	Kaung.	Son	Kun.
Elder sister (W.S.)	Poar.	Daughter	Kunbarê.
Elder sister (M. S.)	Do.	Younger brother (M. S.)	Dai.
Younger sister (M. S.)	A	Younger sister (W.S.)	Dai-brê.
Father's elder brother		Elder brother (W. S.)	Kaung.
Father's younger brother	Audi.	Younger brother (W. S.)	Dai.
Father's brother's wife		Elder brother's child	Kun-kaung.
Father's elder brother's child		(M. S.)	**
Father's younger brother's child.	Kun-muur.		Kun-di.
	E-nar.	(M. S.)	17 . 11
Father's younger sister		Husband's mother's child	
Father's elder sister's	Hayaing-e-nar.	*****	•••••
husband.		Elder brother's child	Kun-kaung.
Father's younger sister's	Havaing-de-di.	(W. S.)	ran-kaung.
husband.		Younger brother's child	Kun-di.
Father's elder sister's child	Kun-e-naing.	(W. S.)	12411 411
Father's younger sister's child	Kun-kyi-di.		Kunkhow-soi-
Mother's elder brother	Anaing.	child.	kaung.
Mother's younger brother		Wife's younger brother's	Künhamandi.
Mother's elder brother's		child.	
wife.		****	, ,, ,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,
Mother's younger brother's	Brê-yamudi.	••••	•••••
wife.		Elder sister's child (M. S.)	Kun-ei-poar.
Mother's elder brother's	Kun-anaing.	Younger sister's child	Kun-di-uwar.
child.		(M. S.)	
Mother's younger bro-	Kun-mudi.	Husband's elder sister's	Kun-kaung-soi-
ther's child.		child.	poar.
Mother's elder sister	E-naing.	Husband's younger sister's	Kundi-brêya.
Mother's younger sister	Sidi.	child.	
Mother's elder sister's	Karaw-e-naing.	* *****	
husband.	Vorom do di	T21.1	111111
Mother's younger sister's husband.	Maraw-de-di.	Elder sister's child (W. S.)	Kun-poar.
Mother's elder sister's child	Kunanoaramai	Younger sister's child	Kundi-breya.
Mother's younger sister's		(W. S.)	Kun kaung-cai
abild younger sisters	Tun-uc-amai.	Wife's elder sister's child	
child.  Father's father  Father's mother  Mother's father  Mother's mother  Mother's mother  Mother's mother	Pa-noot.	Wife's younger sister's	poar. Kun-de-sai-ne
ב ב		child.	real ac sai ne.
Father's mother	May-noot.	*******	
구현	•	11110	······\
Mother's father	Pa-noot.	Son's son (M. S.)	Kun coung nin
ĘĘ			ka-roung. Do. Do. Do.
Mother's mother		Son's son (W. S.)	Do. [节
Husband	Ka-raung.	Daughter's son (M. S.)	Do. (말
: : (Wife's father	Kun-soi-karoung.	_ , ,	ra
Wife's mother Wife's mother Husband's father	**	Daughter's son (W. S.)	
Wise's mother	Kun-soi-brêya.	Wife	Brê.
	17	Daughter's husband (M. S.)	Haman.
Ilusband's father	Kun-soi-karoung.	Daughter's husband (W. S.)	Do.
Wife's father Wife's mother Husband's father Husband's mother	Vun sai batus	Son's wife (M. S.)	Haman. Do. Ha-aw. Do. Son-in-law. Naughter-in-law. Kawn-rê.
11712 1 - 1 1 - L - 1 - 1 - 1	Kun-soi-brêya. Kun-soi-kaung.	Sonia wife (W. S.)	Do.
Wife's younger brother	Desini.	Son's wife (W. S.)	Do. 15 Si
Wife's elder sister	Kun-sai-poar.	Elder sister's husband	Kawn-rê.
Wife's younger sister	Desini-brêya.	(M. S.)	110111111111111111111111111111111111111
Husband's elder brother	Kun-sai-kaung.	Younger sister's husband	Haman-di.
Husband's younger bro-	De-sè-ni.	(M. S.)	
ther.		Elder sister's husband	Kawn-rê.
Husband's elder sister	Poar-baing.	(W. S.)	
Husband's younger sister	Desini-brêya.	Younger sister's husband	Haman-di.
Wile's elder sister's	Hayan-poar-baing.	(W. S.)	- 1 · 1 · · ·
huband.		Elder brother's wife (M. S.)	Poar-baing.
Wife's younger sister's	Hayan-de-si-ni.	Younger brother's wife	Ha-aw-di.
hasband.	Hanan Island	(M. S.)	Donzhaine.
Husband's elder brother's	Hayan-kim-sai- Jiaung.	Elder brother's wife (W.	Poar-baing.
	3411111/J	S.)	
and the second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second second s		Vousses brother's mile	Brå-va-di.
Habani's younger bro-	Hayan-de-si-ni.	Younger brother's wife	Brê-ya-di.
Heaband's younger bro-		Younger brother's wife (W. S.) (W. S.)=Woman speaking.	Brê-ya-di.

# APPENDIX B-XIII.

# LIST OF TERMS OF RELATIONSHIP IN THE KACHIN LANGUAGES.

English.	1st person.		2nd	person.	3rd person.
Father	. Wa		NI		17.
Son	Shadang sha,	•••	N wa N nu		Kăwa. Kănu.
Daughter	Shayi sha.	•••	(		
Younger brother	Nau	•••	N hpu N nau		Kăhpu. Kănau.
Elder sister		•••	N na N nau		Kăna. Kănau.
Father's brother {	(Elder) Wadi. (Younger) Wadoi.			•••	
Brother's child ,	Sha	•••	N sha	•••	. Kăsha.
Father's brother's wife	(Elder) Tung. (Younger) Ndoi.				
Husband's mother's child	(Elder) Ku (Younger) Rat	•••	N ku N rat	*** **	170
Father's brother's child	(Elder) hpu Younger Nau	•••	N hpu N nau		17 - 1
Father's sister	Moigyi.	•••		•••	
Brother's child (W. S.) Father's sister's husband	Nam Ku	•••	N nam N ku	•••	1 77-1
Wife's brother's child Father's sister's child	Nam	•••	N nam N hkau		. Kănam.
Mother's brother	Tsa	•••	N tsa	•••	. Kātsa.
Sister's child Mother's brother's wife	Hkri	•••	N hkri N ni	•••	
Husband's sister's child	Ilkri	•••	N hkri N nam		17.0
Mother's brother's child {	(Younger) Tung.	•••	ev nam	***	, Tanani
Mother's sister Sister's child (M. S.)	Ndoi. Hkri		N hkri		. Kähkri.
Mother's sister's husband {	(Elder) Wadi. (Younger) Wadoi.				
Wife's sister's child	Sha	•••	Nsha		17 ~ _1
Sister's child (W. S.)  Mother's sister's child	Sha (Elder) Hpu	•••	Nsha Nhpu	•••	. Kăhpu.
Mother's sister's child Father's father	(Younger) Nau Ji hkai.	•••	N nau	•••	. Kănau.
Son's son	Shu Woi hkai.		Nshu		. Kăshu.
Father's mother Mother's father	Ji dwi.	ļ			
Mother's mother Daughter's son	Woi dwi.	••••	Nshu		. Kăshu.
Husband	Maduwa. Madujan.				·
Wife's father	Tsa		N tsa		. Kătsa. Kăhkri.
Daughter's husband Wife's mother	Ilkri Ni		Nhkri N ni	•••	. Kăni.
Husband's father Son's wife	Ku Nam	•••	N ku N Nam		1127
Husband's mother	Moi	•••	Nmoi Nhkau		17-1.1
Wife's brother Sister's husband (M. S.)	Hkau		Nhkau	•••	Kăhkau.
(W. S.)	Ku (Elder) Rat		N ku N rat	•••	. Kărat.
Trine's sister }	(Younger) Nam (Elder) Ku	•••	N nam N ku		177-1
Husband's brother {	(Younger) Ra	•••	N rat		. Kărat.
Brother's wife (M, S.)	(Elder) Rat (Younger) Nam		N rat N nam	•••	Kānam.
(W.S.)	Ning (Elder) hpu		N ning N hpu		[ 17 = h.m.; ]
Wifes' sister's husband	(Younger) Nau		N nau N na	•••	Kănau.
Husband's brother's wife {	(Elder) Na (Younger) Nau	***	Nnau	•••	Kănau.
Son's wife's parent's (M. S.) (W. S.)	Hkau Ni		N hkau N ni	•••	172 = 1
(y					_
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	<u> </u>				<del></del>

# APPENDIX B. XIV.

# LIST OF TERMS OF RELATIONSHIP IN VARIOUS KAREN DIALECTS.

English.	Sagau.	Mo-pwa.	Bwe.	Karenni.	Kothi.	Konoo.	Gaike.	Padaung.	Bres.
Father	Pah	Apa	Apa	Peh	A-paw	A-pa	Pah	А-ра	A-pa.
Mother	Мо	A-mer	A-mer	Myn	A-yur	Mo	Ма	А-тй	A-mo.
Son	Po-kwa	Fokwa	Po-ker	Poo-koo	Paw-koo	Po-ker	Paw-kū	Paw-koo	Poker.
Daughter	Po-mū	Fomer	Po-moo	Poo-mo	Paw-moo	Po-moo	Paw-moo	Paw-meo	Po-moo.
Elder brother (M, S,)	Wai-ko	Way-i'kaw	Waipoker	Viaprekoo	Ya-er-doo	Po-do-pwe	l		
					i , ,	•	Waya-pler	Way-adoo	Way-do-
Elder sister (W. S.)	Wai-po-mū	Way-mü	Wai-th'kaw	,	Ya-er-noo	Way-moodo	pler.	Way-moo- adoo.	Apwai.
Younger brother (M. S.).	Puth da	Po-l'da	Poo-po-ker	Per-prai- koo-	Poo-nai-a'	Pi-kaw-mi- ko.	Poo-pro-ker	kço.	Poo-ma-ke
Younger sister (W. S.).	Pũ-pọ-mũ	Fomer lada	Poo-per- moo.	Per-prai- maw.	Poo-nai- pra-moq.	Pi-kaw-mo	Poo-pro-mü	Poo-prai-	Poo-ma- moo.
Elder sister (M. S.)	Wai-po-mü	We-mü	Waipermer	Via-pre- maw.	Ya-er-moo- adoo.	Way-moo-	A-plu	Way-moo- a-pra.	Way-ma-
Younger sister (M. S.)	Pü-müda	Fomer-po	Pü-per-moo		Ya-er-moo-	do-pwe. Pi-kaw-mo	Poo-pro-mü	Poo-prai-	Poo-ma- moo.
Elder brother (W. S.)	Po-wai-ko	Wai-vo- kwa.	Wai-per- ker.	Via-pre-koo	Ya-er-a-doo			Way-doo-	Wch-do-
Younger brother (W.	Pu-th'da	Folada	Poo-thai- day.	Per-prai- koo.	Poo-rai-a	pway. Pe-kaw-me-	A-pler	prai. Way-prai	pway. Wch-do-
S.) Father's brother	Pa-tee,	Ah-pwa	Peh-tee	Peh-doo	Doo-pa	ko. A-to	A-doh	Pch-doo	A-see,
Brother's child (M. S.)	Po-do	Foder	Per-der	Poo-doo	Paw-daw	Po-do	Paw-doo	Pondoo	Per-der.
Father's brother's	Mü-ga	Mah-mah	Mah-mah	Mü-doo	The-poo-	A-toh	A-dih	Mer-dog	Ma-ma.
wife. Husband's mother's	Wai	Way	Wai	Dah	weh. Weh-poo	The poor	Nay	Nigh	The-pao-
child. Father's brother's	Tkwa	L'wha	G'ber	Per-boo	The-poo-	way. Th-g'-bo	Nga-boo	Tha-g-bo	the-way.
child.		Mah-mah	Mah-mah	Mü-doo	weh.			Mer-doo	
Father's sister	Mü-ga			,					Ma-ma.
Brother's child (W. S.)	Po-do	Foder	Per-der	Poo-doo	Paw-doo	Mer-der	Maw-doo	Pondos	Per der.
Father's sister's hus- band.	Pa-ter	Pwa-pwa	Peh-tec	Peh-doo	Doo-pa	A-tok	A·doh	Peh-doo	Λ-pwa.
Wife's brother's child	Pa-do,	Foder	Per-der	Poo-doo	Paw-doo,,,	Per-der	Paw-doo	Pondoo	Per-der.
Father's sister's child	Tkwa	L'wha	G'ber	Per-boo	The-poo- weh.	Tha-g-bo,	Nga-boo	Tha-g'-bo	A-ber.
Mother's brother	Pa-tee	Pwa-pwa	Peh-tee	Peh-doo	Doo-pa	A-toh	A-doh	Peh-d.o	A-pwa.
Sister's child (M. S.)	Po-do	Foder	Per-der	Poo-doo	Paw-doo	Per-der	Paw-doo	Pondoo	Per-der.
Mother's brother's	Mü-ga	Mah-mah	Mah-mah	Mü-doo	Doo-mü	A-toh	A-toh	Mer-doo	Ma-ma.
wife. Husband's sister's	Po-do	Foder	Per-der	Poo-doo	Paw-doo	Per-der	Paw-doo	Pondoo	Per-der.
child. Mother's brother's	T'kwa	L'wha	G'ber	Per-boo	The-poo-	The-g'-bo	Nga-boo	Tha g'ho	A-ber.
child. Mother's sister	Mü-ga	Mah-mah	Mah-mah	Mü-doo	wch. Doo-mü	A-toh	A-to	Peh-doo	A-scc.
Sister's child (W. S.)	Po-do	Foder	Per-der	F00-d00	Paw-doo	Per-der	Paw-doo	Pondoo	Per-der.
Mother's sister's hus-	Pa-tee	Pwa-pwa	Peh-tee	Peh-doo	-Doo-pa	Λ-toh	A-to	Peh-deo	A-pwa.
band. Wife's sister's child			Per-der		Po-doo		Paw-doo	Pondço	Per-der.
- 1	ĺ			Poo-doo		Mer-der	_	-	
Mother's sister's child	T'kwa	L'wha	G'ber	Per-boo	The poo- weh.	The-g'- bo	Nga-boo	Tha g-bo	A-ber.
Father's father	Pü	Apü	A-poo	Pwer	A-po	Λ-роо	A-poo	Poo	Λ-poo.
Father's mother	Pec	Ah-pie	A-pec	Руа '	А-рау	A-pec	A-pee	Pec	√-bec
Mother's father	Pü	Pü	Poo	Pwer	Ро	Poo	Poo	Poo	Poo.
Mother's mother	.Pee	А-рее	Pec	Pya	A-pay	Pee	Pee	Pec	Pec.
Son's son (M. S.)	Lee-kwa	Lway-wha	Lay-kwa	Lway-prai- koo.	Lay-paw- kaw.	Pee-mee-ko	Lü-pro-koo	Le-pro-koo	Li-ker.
Son's son (W. S.)					- ···	•••		•••	·. <b>.</b>
Daughter's son (M.					,••				. •••
S.) Daughter's son (W.								***	•••
S.) Husband	Wah	A-wa	Wah	Veh	Wah	.wa	Wo `	Wah	Wah.
Wife	Mah	A-mah	Meh	May	Ма	Pwe	Mah	Мар.	Męh.
Wife's father	Mee-pwa-	Fokwa	Mee-pwa	Prai-prai-	Thee-sa-a	Mee-pway	Pra-pro-kü	Pra-pro-kü	Mec-pway
Wife's mother	po-kwa. Mee-pwa-	Pree-pwa	Mee-pwa	koo. Prai-prai-	Thee-ka-	Mee-pway-	Pra-pra-	Pra-pra-mü	Mee-pway-
Husband's father	po-mū. Mee-pwa	Mee-pwa	Mee-pwa	maw. Prai	pra-moo. Thee-ka-sa	a-moo. Mee-pway	moo. Pra	Pra	Mah-moo Mee-pway
Husband's mother	1	- 1		<b>5</b> .		,	_		Mee-pway.
	Mee-pwa-	Mee-pwa.	Mee-pwa		Thee-sa-a	Mee-pway			
Daughter's husband (M. S.)	Ма-ро	Mah	Mah-po	Meh	**	Mah-po	K'maw,	K'maw,	Ma-per.
Daughter's husband (W. S.)		•••			"				· •••
Son's wife (M. S.) Son's wife (W. S.)	Dai	Day-mü	Dai	Dya	Dye	Deh	Deh	Deh	Deh.
Wife's brother Sister's husband (M.	Yaw-pah	Yo-pa	Yo-pah	Dah	Nigh	Yo·pah	Nay	Nay	Yo-pah.
S.) Sister's husband (W.	·	ł	[	- "		***			
S.) Wite's sister	Day-mü	Wayamer	 Day	Kee	Koo-ma	2			Day.
Husband's brother Husband's sister	Wai	Way-mer Way	Wai	Dah	Yer	Yo-pah	Nay	Nigh	Yo-pah. Day.
Brother's wife (M S )	Wai-mű	Pū-mū	Day	Kec	The-g'nah	Day	Nay	Neh	<i></i>
Brother's wife (W.S.) Wife's sister's hus-	Daw-pū-	Taw-mū-	Yo-ра	Nah	Neh	Yo-ma	Nay	Neh	Yo-pah.
hand. Husband's brother's	wai. Daw-pu-	way. Way-ma	Day	Kec	The-g'nah	Day	Nay	Neh	Day.
wife. Son's wife's parents	wai-mű. Do.	Der	Ga-mah	Kaw-meh	The-g'ma	Ga-mah	Tha-g'-	Kaw-way	Ga-mah.
			~- ·······				maw.		

### APPENDIX B-XIV.—concluded.

# LIST OF TERMS OF RELATIONSHIP IN VARIOUS KAREN DIALECTS—concld.

English.		Karen.				
		Fwo.		Sgau.		
Father Mother	•••	Hpa Mo,		Pa, Mo,		
Elder brother (M. S.)	•••	Wè	***	Wè.		
Elder sister	•••	We (Mu)	•••	We (Mu).		
Elder Sister (M. S.)	• • •	Wê (Mu) Hpu (Mu)	***	We (Mu).		
Younger } Father's brother	•••	Hpahte	••• •••	Pu (Mu). Hpati.		
Father's brether's wife	•••	Mogao	***	Muga,		
Father's brother's child	•••	Tahkwa		Tahkwa.		
Father's sister Father's sister's husband	***	Moga Hpahti (Man)		Muga, Hpati,		
Father's sister's child	**	Takhwa	***	Takhwa.		
Mother's brother		Hpahti (Manson)		Hpatihpo.		
Mether's brether's wife	•••	Moga	•••	Muga.		
Mother's brother's child Mother's sister	***	Takhwa Gabôn	••• •••	Takhwa. Mugahpo.		
Mother's sister Mother's sister's hisband	•••	Hpahti (Manson)	•••	Hpatihpo.		
Mether's sister's child	,	Takhwa	***	Takhwa.		
Grand- (Father's father	•••	lipu		Hpu.		
father. ) Father's mother Grand- ) Mother's father	•••	Hpi Hpu	•••	; Họi, Họu		
mother. (Mether's mother	•••	Hpu	•••	Hpi.		
Husband	•••	· Wa	***	wa.		
Father- ( Wife's father	•••	Meinsha (Hkwa)	•••	Mipga (Pohkwa).		
in-law. Wife's mether	•••	Meinsha (Mu) Meinsha (Hkwa)	••• •••	· Mipga (Pomu). · Mipga (Pohkwa).		
Mother- Husband's father	•••	Meinsha (Mu)	•••	Mipga (Pomu).		
Wife's brother	•••	Hkeinnine		Yawhpa.		
Wife's slater { Elder Younger	•••	} Hkeinnine		Pudemu.		
Husband's brother (Elder	ger	} Hkeinnine	•• •••	Pudekhwa.		
Husband's sister { Elder Youn		Kheinnine	•••	Pudemu,		
Wife's sister's husband		Hkeinnine		Chinè.		
Husband's brother's wife	•••	Hicinnine	•••	D.,		
Son's wife's parents	•••	D'aung Hpo (Kwa)		Do. Hpo (Kwa).		
Son Daughter	•••	Hpo (Mu)	•••	Hpo (Mu).		
Younger brother (M. S.)	•••	Hpu (Kwa) 🔐	•••	Pu (Kwa).		
Younger sister (W. S.)		Hpu (Mu)	•••	Pu (Mu).		
Brother (W. S.) Elder Younger	••	. Wè (Kwa) Hpu (Kwa)	••• •••	We (Kwa). Pu (Kwa).		
Brother's child (M. S.)	•••	Muru	•••	· Hpodo.		
Husband's mother's child	•••	Hkeinnine	•••	Chenè.		
Brother's child (W.S.)	•••	Muru		, Ilpodo. Hpodo.		
Wife's brother's child Sister's child (M. S.)	• • •	Muru	***	Hpodo.		
Husband's sister's child	•••	Muru		Hpodo.		
Sister's child	•••	Muru	•••	Hpodo.		
Wife's sister's child	•••	Muru	***	Hpodo.		
Grand- (Son's son (M. S.) Son's son (W. S.)	•••	<i>).</i> .				
child. Daughter's son (M. S.)	***	{Li	***	Li,		
(Daughter's son (W. S.)	•••	),,		Wa		
Wife	•••	Wa	*** ***	Wa.		
Son-in- Daughter's husband (M. S.		} Mat	***	Mah.		
Dag. Cont. with 134 S.		12		70		
ghter-   Son's wife (W. S.)	•••	} Dai	*** ***	Dè.		
111,147.4.7		Ilkeinnine	•••	Yawhpa.		
Sister's husband (M. S.) Sister's husband (W. S.)	***	likeinnine	*** ***			
Brother's wife (M. S.)	•••	Hkeinnine	•	Wemu,		
Brother's wife (W. S.)	•••	)		1		
		(		1		
				}		
•				1		

#### APPENDIX B-XV.

A grand-father is cosp and a grandmother cocom.

Children in general are called chanat (the singular and plural being denoted by one word). One's own child is called 'anak. If a son it is anak kani; if a daughter anak Irni; an uncle (father's or mother's elder brother) is spoken to as tawha kani; while an uncle (father's or mother's younger brother) called nye kani. The case of aunts is similar. A father's or mother's elder sister is called tawha beni; and a father's or mother's younger sister is alluded to as wa beni. There is no general term for brother or sister. The general terms for uncle and aunt, are kanon and oowa. It is always necessary to speak of elder or younger brothers and sisters and their wives and husbands. I have not discovered if they have, and lay great stress upon the old saying "Age before Honour" but in all their relationships primogeniture is carefully noted. An elder brother is aka kani and a younger brother voice kani. An elder sister is aki beni and a younger sister is

Brothers-in-law are likewise distinguished. An elder brother's wife is -loowa; a younger brother's wife is epan beni. An elder sister's husband is bei and a younger sister's husband is epan kani; nephews and nieces are not distinguished, apparently, as only one word is given for each, regardless of their being children of elder or younger brothers.

Nephew is kamaun kani; and niece is kamaun beni.

A father-in-law (on either side) is tawkä käni; and a mother-in-law is tawkä beni. It is well to notice the change from n to k in the words for uncle or aunt and father-in-law er n other-in-law. If a man's wife dies and he takes another she is called beni nek (nek me in small, or lesser). In the same way if a woman marries another man when her first hashand dies the second husband is called käni nek. Also, the term nek is applied throughout the relationships; and a boy or girl calls his or her step-mother enong nek (lever mother) and step-father apong nek.